

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

VOLUME I

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THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Published quarterly by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Volume I

MAY, 1937

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Reference to the minutes of the Forty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 4, 1936, as recorded on page 24 of this volume shows the following official action authorizing this publication.

Upon recommendation of the Executive Committee the Association voted to adopt the report of the Committee on Publications appointed at the last annual meeting.

The Committee on Publications of the Southern Association unanimously submits the following recommendations:

1. That a Southern Association Quarterly be issued.
2. That a board of five members be held responsible for securing an editor and supervising all matters pertaining to the publication and distribution of the Quarterly. This board is to be composed of the secretaries of the three commissions, the president, and the secretary-treasurer of the Association.
- 3, 4. (These sections recommend as to the character of the four issues and make appropriation for publication. See page cited above.)

In accordance with these resolutions the Board of Publication as listed above was set up, the editor elected, and the editorial committee constituted to consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association acting with the editor.

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume I

MAY, 1937

Number 2

Trends in Modern Education*

By ISAIAH BOWMAN

President of The Johns Hopkins University

One of the reasons for my precipitate acceptance of the invitation to address you is my dislike of the word "trend." It implies a febrile state of mind, an engrossing eagerness to know what is going on now, as if the greatest purpose of living were to impale the passing moment. It has been often observed that the people who are so earnestly up-to-date are not up to much else. Or, to state the matter positively rather than negatively: (1) intelligent living means an awareness of the background out of which the people and the processes of today emerge, the present being light as breath unless seen against the background of the past; and (2) intelligent living requires reason and judgment based upon knowledge rather than prejudice if the purpose be to exercise some useful guiding power on the future. Since education is preparation for intelligent living, I would test every "trend" by its relation to reason, judgment, aesthetic enjoyment, past experience, and future needs. Such a test requires time in which to put things into perspective and make up one's mind about them. The first question to ask of a trend is, does it embody a real idea or is it merely a passing fashion tricked out like an idea.

As soon as a man looks understandingly at past events in human experience, he is prepared to consider forward events. If he has substantial intellectual resources, if he has acquired the power of logical thinking, if he is sensible of the value of ideals, he may hope in small degree, at least, to make a wise choice of alternatives that affect his future, and it may be also in some degree the future of the society of which he is a part. Only in the sense of forming a bridge between an analyzed past and a possibly modifiable future is a "trend", in my judgment, of either interest or value in education. We have had a plague of superficial trend studies in all aspects of life, including education, during the past twenty years. There is an intense striving on the part of practically all of our colleges and schools with respect to the "new"—a new arrangement is announced of courses in the social sciences, a new plan has been adopted with respect to student medical services, new attitudes are invoked with respect to study, reading, lectures, and freedom.

All this is intended to mean progress. A college is on its toes, its bid for public support is expected to succeed, its administration is progressive, if

* An address delivered before the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 1936.

it shows a capacity to entertain new things, little matter what. If that last phrase seems overdrawn, I invite a close reading of the "new" announcements of this year, and a comparison with those of last year and the year before, many of them by new people meaning, as a rule, untried people. Most of the "new" is in truth very, very, old, and much of it is utterly trivial. Wayward is the mood of those who are not happy unless they run with a crowd: "it suffices for the wind to change, and all the fleets of thought will forget their errand and sail for another haven." (Santayana).

Is it not supposed that college is a place where a youth is aroused, electrified, alert, but where he also acquires a certain intellectual balance, the forerunner of that poise which should mark the mature man? Have colleges not won public support in the past on the ground that they provide a background of knowledge and judgment for present-day action, and strive for the acquisition of fundamental qualities in character and learning during "the breathing time of life"? Fundamentals do not change every hour. Does a single academic year provide room for the novelties that are supposed to mark progress? Surely the voice of sensation should exercise no siren spell upon the educated man! How much of the new will stand the test of experience and analysis?

It is a truism that most of the fundamentals of education were thought out and recorded in Plato's time, two thousand years ago. Experience up to that time had been sufficiently long and diverse to show the defects of human nature, and the need for ordered group living that is the precursor of civilization. Common desires and satisfactions often demand community of interest in achieving them. Many of these desires and satisfactions can only be achieved by associative effort. A Mayan palace or a temple of Segesta cannot be constructed by one man. Few are the painters who could continue to paint if others did not buy their canvasses. The gardens at the foot of the western slope of the Wasatch mountains in Utah, like the irrigated lands of Babylonia and Egypt, are wonders of material achievement and aesthetic satisfaction that represent the common purposes of men working together.

There are two grand divisions of purpose in education: first, that the individual shall find out what he is good for; second, that he shall learn to live usefully, ethically, and aesthetically with others. What is best for the achievement of these purposes in one period is not best for all periods. The broad purposes remain the same, but the methods of attainment change with changing forms of society and changing relation to the earth and to physical forces. An educational method that is now right may be quite wrong under future circumstances. Twenty miles an hour would have been reckless speed on the first railways of the country; it is proof of inefficiency if maintained on an ordinary railway today. The indispensable traffic signal of today would have been silly in colonial times. Likewise,

education in 1800 on the advancing border of settlement in the Middle West could not include forest conservation when the whole object of land clearance was to win survival by cropping the cleared soil. Today an education that excludes any consideration of the principle of conservation in its application to soils, wild life, forests, minerals, and human energy, is fundamentally defective.

To know oneself and how to live with others are matters that need to be stated with some exactness of detail in order to have any practical bearing on education. Since society is changing constantly, we must frequently restate our aims and reanalyze the methods by which we hope to attain them. I propose to set down a partial list of the things education can do or should do as tests of the authenticity of "trends," whatever their kind:

(1) Education should diversify and develop our observational powers in order that we shall not go blindly through the world. It has been said that if a perpetual cloud cover were wrapped around the earth—sun, planets, and stars remaining invisible—a knowledge of the shape and size of the earth would have been long delayed. Our method of ascertaining that shape and size depends upon observations on heavenly bodies. A first method for determining the size of the earth was based in part on a noon sun altitude. Long before the rise of modern medicine, the search for and the use of medicinal plants had been carried to a high level by generations of observing and experimenting people. A man who goes through the world without knowing something about the natural features and forces surrounding him, lives on a fog-enshrouded earth. There is little beauty and no meaning in the earth for him. Scientific research has been called "a dialogue between mind and nature." (Bergson). During the past one hundred years this dialogue has dealt with the profoundest revelations of physical forces that have been made in the history of mankind.

(2) Education expands the world, providing the individual with a background for the present and a base for a more rational future. Observation, to which we have just made acknowledgment, is observation in a moment of time, but, as in geology for example, observation may be made upon processes and life forms that have persisted through millions of years. Thus the past becomes linked with the living present, and the present is seen in true perspective as an emergent of the past.

We discover, similarly, that there are heavy commitments to the past in human affairs. We can never turn our backs completely on what we have done. To learn where we *are*, we must know where we *were*, and both questions are antecedent to a knowledge of the future. No one can set his course by any known compass, or for any destination whatever, without taking account of the spot where he stands. Every place, time, and condition is related to other places, times, and conditions. Each place and time and condition puts a stamp upon the individual. In more ways than we can easily name, it is true that "the whole of nature follows us about." To be "up-to-date," aware of current trends, or "progressive," is impossible without paying heavy tribute to the past. Old ingredients reappear in every generation. We are in infinitely varied relation to our ancestors, and to the past as well as to the present.

(3) Education deepens insight by providing a man with the power of "creative interpretation." Only by interpretation can one usefully recall much of the past and appreciate what Shorey calls "the persistent rationality and sanity of the world's

best books." Meanings emerge when one sees events in progression down the years. We think creatively of the past when we analyze and select the desirable elements that we hope to work into the future—our own as well as others. Whether we deal with the origins of conscience or the growth of the humanitarian instincts; or seek an interpretation of the associative life of insects and flowers; or whether we review the long process of code-making and practice in code-keeping that have made civilization possible—in all alike, we are engaged in creative interpretation. We are dealing with facts about the past and rationalities concerning them, as well as with current philosophies and systems of living. Thus new worlds have been created in the minds of men, and new perceptions gained of well-nigh limitless possibilities in the future. The end result of such an analysis is not a static world about which one can learn all there is to know and then stop learning; but a world in which all learning is an introduction, a threshold. These statements are not idealistic only, vague formulations of impulse or aspiration; they are deeply moving and practical forces seeking more effective forms of expression in men today.

(4) Education provides a world of ideas, rather than material things only. Through these ideas man effects that "reconciliation with his environment," which is one of the great objects in human geography. He learns how to use the resources of the earth rationally without unnecessary waste and for long-time purposes. No one can live in the world of ideas without feeling a profound discontent with respect to the status of man in relation to his environment, discontent that he has, in the mass, wasted so much of the wealth of this earth carelessly and criminally; that in half a century, he has destroyed soils that have been millions of years forming. Education in this sense constantly shifts the emphasis from what one is doing to what one *ought* to do, from the immediate to the *future* event, from today to *tomorrow*. Education is interested not alone in how we are living, but in how we ought to live—with respect to each other and with respect to our environment.

(5) Through education we learn to seek everlastingly for the permanent elements in a changing world so as not to shift our whole basis of thought and living with every new "wind of doctrine," however important it may be to cultivate open-mindedness toward desirable change. For all the newness in the world, generation after generation, we could not subsist if we were not habituated to a "common groove of thought and feeling." Before we had civilization, we must have had an agreement to act together. Gradually that agreement was widened to include more and more sorts of things.

As soon as a rule was set up or a groove worn deep, there were critics to point out how much better it would have been to have done it differently. Existing forms of government, society, and even education need not be the best in theory to be the best in practice also. *That is best which is the best we can get people to practice.* Experimentation and challenge have their highly useful place, but a social order or an individual that has neither habit nor groove, wastes energy on useless retrieval of the things we call fundamentals.

(6) By giving proportion and poise to character, education increases trained discriminatory power in the individual when he is confronted by choices in the moral field, by political and social questions, and by aesthetic possibilities. The final tragedy, says Froude, is to come to the end of life holding the same views that one held at the beginning. Education provides flexibility of thought; and, if it is true education, it never ceases to emphasize the importance of poise and proportion. It teaches that the opinion of a crowd rarely has meaning, except in terms of ignorance and feeling, rather than reason, insight, or proportion. It teaches that when one is driving steadily forward in one's thought about the changing world, one

must not lose touch with the fundamentals and with the past out of which they have come.

In the light of the preceding remarks, I want to examine the two broad divisions of education which I mentioned at the beginning, namely, the individual and associative living. *So-called trends in education are largely shifts of emphasis from one to the other of these two main purposes.* Some schools and colleges, both old and new, proclaim the excellence of one or the other of these purposes as if they were mutually exclusive. What I have said about balance and proportion applies to our study or analysis of these two purposes also, for I see no mutual exclusiveness, no reason for not keeping the two purposes in an harmonious working relation.

Associative living had very little meaning in the early days of the human race. The cave dweller, whether individual or group, had no need for wide-ranging theories about code-keeping and the humane ideal in social living. Each additional partial conquest of the earth gave man a new view of himself and of his fellows. So, too, each advance in social organization opened new windows and provided vistas of possibilities for future improvement. Writers of all times have talked excitedly about what was going to happen some day if. . . . When men first saw "the hope of a possibility" of discovery or change for the better, they emerged from animalhood to manhood.

All of this means that each generation has had to relearn truth about character, education, society, family, and experience. Each generation tests and retests before going forward. Education hastens the development of a sense of awareness (in both individuals and society) of achievement, as well as of the practical limits of achievement through social action. As an agent of changing society, our schools and colleges cannot be static organizations, places where purpose is fixed once for all, where a unique method of learning and research has become formalized. Rather, they should stand forth as the embodiment of inquiry, forever directing their courses toward the goals of our tomorrows. Hear Sir James Barrie on the occasion of the 350th Anniversary of Edinburgh University: "Her eyes are unprobable eyes that you and I shall never fathom. She knows very well that the rack of a tough world must still be her portion, but she is undismayed, stands full target for all the winds of the future. She says, 'For a university there can be no harbor.'"

As we expect spirituality in churchmen, so do we expect idealism in educators and social leaders. A university may have all else of worldly possession and intellectual power, and if it have not idealism, its words will be a formula, a meaningless and devitalized rote. Through education, there should be brought together the motives, urges, and idealisms of the past and of our generation; and through education they should be given concrete and positive form.

Our colleges have stood for a principle now three-fourths of a millenium

old : that as the forces of the world multiply and the impacts likewise, there can be reconciliation of conflicting interests only through law, one of the products of associative living. With the imminent danger of war, never has that principle needed virile support as much as today. For youth in the present day world, one side of the shield of life is reason and harmony, and the other bitter tragedy—that “they die doubly who die so young.”

The father of Louis Agassiz once wrote to his son : “Before we insist upon making people read we must begin by preparing them to read usefully. . . .” That is why purposes and ideals play so large a part in the programs of educators. There is danger, of course, that emphasis too greatly prolonged on ideals and purposes may come to mean formalized language about them. High purpose cannot be invoked to justify futility in action.

The teacher enters the classroom with a concrete purpose before him. He has students with severe limitations, and he must discuss matters with them concretely. But it is no gain to the individual student if the student’s spontaneous interest is to be the sole guide of instruction. It is no help to him to confirm him in bad actions by giving him free rein and exercising no influence upon his choice of books and ideas. To exert influence, implies a choice on the part of the teacher and a choice conveyed to the student. It is a choice which cannot be expressed in a formula. It would be a calamity to have our educational system directed from Washington, no matter who may be living in the White House. The parts of our country are so distinctive that education ought to have its regional variations.

Again, education is not self-indulgence but rather self-discipline. I have become accustomed to saying to students of all ages : “You will never amount to anything in the world of scholarship and ethical living unless and until you become your own severest critic.” The whole of civilization, of orderly associative living, is built upon the word *duty*—that men shall do things because they ought to do them, and the ought is determined chiefly by the community, not by the individual. Education, with too great emphasis upon individuality, is education in disorder ; it decreases the sense of duty towards one’s fellows. No one ever learned his duty by scoffing at his fellows. Learning the meaning of duty is a painful process. It does not come from instinct, but from trying. Freedom for the self-pampering, selfish soul can never be a good end in itself.

The acquisition of knowledge in a democratic system is not alone for the sake of possessing and enjoying that knowledge, but as a guide to the action of the individual when he takes his place as a citizen of the state. If education provides no place for the fulfillment of social duty, it is out of keeping with the modern world. Civics had little point in the earlier schools of the modern era ; the whole world had been trained to authority, and life and government were relatively simple. Without education in civics a modern curriculum would be medieval in outlook.

A democracy requires that we shall be free to have different opinions, but it also requires that we debate those opinions in order that there may be effective agreement and acceptance of the rule of the majority. Now that acceptance is itself a very important part of the process. This truth emerges, for example, when we compare the methods of government of the Latin American countries with those of the United States and Canada. Though provision is made for majority rule in the Latin American republics, the rule is violated so often and so grossly in some countries that we are bound to look beneath the surface of political forms in our effort to discover the cause of failure of any true democracy on the part of these states. I think the deficiency is due to the lack of respect for the tried way and for tradition that betokens the existence of a group mind and an awareness and respect for it. We need courage to win, but we also frequently need courage to lose.

We are all conscious of the need for common action, but the current emphasis is so heavily upon individuality and freedom that there is a marked drift, as it seems to me, away from the traditional civic teaching in the schools which extolled the nation, the majority, the common will. It is no good having leaders with excellent judgment and training unless we have followers who are willing to be led. It seems to me that we need a sense of individual powers and possibilities in relation to the cementing of society, and that this integration of the group is just as necessary as the "integration" of the individual about which we hear so much in the schools today.

In relation to civic objectives, how shall the individual answer the twin question, "What do you do and why do you do it?" :

(1) One contribution of the individual to social integration grows out of the desire for approval from one's fellows, but so nicely is this balanced in the individual, as between good and bad, that it may be either destructive or constructive according to degree and type of approval which is desired and according to the type of fellowship involved. It is the distinction between a "big shot" in the crude and vulgar sense of the term and the desire to do something worth doing and even worth emulating by others. In the good sense of the word "recognition" by one's fellows, as Woodrow Wilson once observed, it is one of the great moving forces in men and a prime principle of administration. The desire for recognition becomes a disease when it overtops the desire to do good work and respect for the dignity of all work: "There is no trade or employment but the young man following it may become a hero." (Whitman.)

(2) A second contribution is made through the inculcation and informed development of a *sense of duty*. Whether the civilization be high or low, the individual is called upon to help hold things together, to do his part in winning agreement and following in effective degree a "common groove of thought and action."

(3) Education should enable the individual to explore his own resources and those of the world outside, and combine recognition and a sense of duty with a high sense of craftsmanship, without destroying or thwarting his own powers or destroying or thwarting the beneficent agencies and institutions of society.

(4) It is the mark of maturity in a man, in a community, in a society, that it has developed a sense of *time*. Perspective is required that provides a place for

time and Providence as well as for human effort. We cannot too often realize that men are "over-eager to be doing what they are not sure of approving, even when they have done it."

Success in the intellectual and spiritual sense of the word consists in holding these forces in balance when it is difficult, or, even perilous, to hold them in balance. Just as the citizens of the medieval town took account of their common need for defense, participated in the building of the wall encircling the town, joined in the defense of the town in time of attack, worked actively through the various artisan guilds to improve the quality of the products and exports of the town, so today our several communities should become conscious of the power of the individual working with his fellows to improve the conditions of living, not only by voting for a governor or a president whom they may never have seen, or for congressmen whose actions they do not follow, but by having each individual participate personally in the affairs that concern himself and his immediate neighbors in his own community.

The two-fold definition of education for the individual and for society has a meaning for society that has truly vast possibilities. Science provides a useful example of painful contrast between reality and ideal in this respect. Training in science today is not calculated to make the scientist useful in political life, but to prepare him to employ science in the discovery of more science and to make wide application to vocational use. The whole set of the educational current in the past twenty-five years has been in this direction. In spite of the increase of scientific bureaus in the government, there is general lethargy with respect to the obligations of scientists toward government. A vivid sense of public responsibility on the part of scientific men is lacking, and no effective agency exists among scientists for the discharge of social responsibility.

Freely indulged curiosity has led to many of the discoveries of science. Let that curiosity develop without reference to social living, and no harm is done if we are thinking of individual genius; but great opportunities are missed if we are thinking of students in the mass. No citizen today can do his part merely by realizing his individual possibilities without knowledge about, and the exercise of rational judgment upon, the forces that determine his social welfare. As soon as we do a thing, we are bound to ask ourselves how we ought to have done it to achieve the purpose in view, and this question is no sooner answered than we are bound to ask how shall we do it in the future?

To answer that question in detail would require me to range over the entire curriculum, but I conceive my duty discharged when I point to the fundamentals of the problem and these, as in every problem, are the simplicities of the problem. They do not require us to use technical jargon, they do not compel us to scurry around for some "new" idea to put forward

in uncoördinated form and without reference to the whole of our program, they demand no unusual profundity of knowledge with respect to each subject of instruction. But the fundamentals require everlasting emphasis, study, redefinition, and revitalization in order that zeal for newness shall not be detached from aim at soundness. With this aim lost, such zeal serves only chaos and fanaticism.

Nothing else in the world is so important for the development of a healthy educational program in colleges and secondary schools as the acquisition of that poise and proportion of which I have spoken, with respect to knowledge, its selection, acquisition, and application. No matter how much change there may be in detail, education comes back always to a few principles. Let these principles be well understood, and I would care little for the exact method employed to bring them to fruition in the lives of students.

The Integration of Social Science, English, and Art in the New Curriculum Work at Shaker Heights High School*

By ALMA BOWEN

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Integration must have been one of the terms that Humpty Dumpty had in mind when he said, "When *I* use a word, it means just what I choose it to mean—neither more nor less. The question is, which is to be master—that's all."

By integration of subject matter in social science, English, and art the three people who planned this experiment do not mean either: (1) a fusion of three courses with one or more teachers in the same classroom; or (2) the day by day or week by week use of parallel subject matter in three separate classrooms. They mean rather the selection and study in the social science, English, and art class of different aspects of concepts which to them best represent the needs of the individual in the world today.

Such integration is made possible by the formulation and acceptance of a fundamental philosophy. Briefly this philosophy is that of unchanging values in the midst of changing conditions:

1. Social science emphasizes enduring values in the midst of the recurrent problems of the world and nation and community.
2. English emphasizes enduring values in the midst of the recurrent problems of the individual.
3. Art emphasizes permanent ideals of beauty in the midst of changing expressions.

Something is gained in the way of relationships from uniform methods of approach and similarities in procedure. All courses begin with a modern challenging topic and draw in the past by a natural comparative or evolutionary study. In all classes, students are given freedom in the developing and following of their own interests, informal as well as carefully planned discussions are encouraged, small groups coöperate in arriving at solutions of problems, and extensive use is made of sources other than books.

It is customary also to give correlated examinations at the end of each year. These examinations consist of topics to be discussed in the light of information gained in the three fields.

So much for the meaning of the word *integration*! Social science and English are reorganized into broad fields and planned for a three-year

* An address delivered before the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 1936.

period, while work in art is related to the basic themes selected for study in these two subjects. No textbooks are used in either English or social science; instead, classrooms have been made into laboratories and extensive room libraries of both books and magazines have been accumulated with the money not spent for textbooks. The social science laboratory is a large room equipped with moveable tables and chairs, open shelves, display bulletin boards, a stereopticon and dark blinds. Classes in English and social science are two fifty-minute periods in length and alternate on successive days.

The three-year sequence in social science is arranged as follows:

Tenth year—The World as a Community.

Eleventh year—The Nation in the World Community.

Twelfth year—The Family in the Present Social Order.

Last year the work of the tenth year developed into three broad units:

1. World storm centers and crises in general with special reference to Ethiopia and to the League of Nations.
2. Description and evaluation of conflicting forms of world government—democracy, fascism, and communism.
3. The industrial revolution.

Throughout the year international coöperation—past, present, and future—was emphasized. Only the first of these units was suggested by the teacher. After becoming aware of conflicting interests and ambitions among the nations belonging to the League, the students demanded an analysis of the forms of government typified by these nations. A study of democracy, fascism, and communism with their divergent theories of capital, ownership of property, social security, etc., led naturally to a desire for information concerning the industrial revolution in which so many of these problems had their origin. This September the revolution in Spain provided a starting point for the study of the world community.

While 10B classes in social science are busy with World crises, the English classes devote their attention to the type of person who takes control and guides the destinies of a nation at such times. Gamaliel Bradford questions, "Who did these things we are asked to study about? Who thought great thoughts and fought great fights and did great service to humanity and how did they do it and why did they do it?" The two main topics for the year are Leadership and Social Justice. The study of Leadership begins with leaders in the twentieth century. Students read extensively in modern biography and read intensively such poems as *The Lost Leader*, *The Ballad of Heroes*, and the *Commemoration Ode*. This work usually results in a definite formulation by each student of *My Creed of Greatness*. Abraham Lincoln is studied as a type of truly great leader. Carl Sandburg's *The Prairie Years* is used as a primary text; supplementary reading includes Drinkwater's drama and a number of poems and stories about Lincoln. The study of Leadership

culminates with Julius Caesar as interpreted by Shakespeare and contrasted with modern Caesars.

The unit on social justice in sharp contrast to the one on leadership deals with the man of the masses. Its three aspects are: social justice and the significance of the common man; the dignity and the romance of labor; and social revolution. An extensive reading list includes Galsworthy's *Silver Box*, O'Henry's *Short Stories*, *The Man With the Hoe*, *The Cotter's Saturday Night*, Sandburg's *Anthology of Revolutionary Poetry*, and the *Tale of Two Cities*. Round table discussions concerning such topics as child labor, strikes, poverty and relief, etc., develop from interviews with social agencies in Cleveland as well as from suggested reading.

For the sake of a better understanding and a keener appreciation of poetic form, practice in choral speaking is also a feature of the tenth grade work in English.

The same very carefully thought out relationship between social science and English characterizes the eleventh year program. Last year the major topics in social science were:

1. International aspects of American democracy or the foreign policy of the United States.
2. Existing American political institutions and their evolution.
3. The machine age in the United States—its development and its problems.

With characteristic opportunism the work this fall began with the conflict of issues in the Presidential election and led to a detailed consideration of the organization, the influence, and the history of political parties in the United States. The main emphasis, no matter what unit is being studied, is on the evolution of democracy. The state requirement of a year of United States history is fulfilled, although the approach is entirely different from that of the usual course in American history. A challenging modern problem directs attention to the past, the significance of events takes precedence over their chronology, and the students are guided in developing individual philosophies of government.

In English the work for this year is called *The Pageant of America*. The cultures of America with their different racial elements are considered in the light of their European backgrounds and also from the point of view of the problem of adjustment to life in a new country. After a study of the Anglo-Saxon heritage as revealed in *Idylls of the King*, *Beowulf*, and old English ballads, each student selects his favorite culture from a list of ten national or racial groups; in pursuit of material he not only reads extensively but also draws upon other sources of information, such as, visits to the Karamu Theater, which is the local Negro playhouse, and interviews with prominent foreign-born citizens of Cleveland. Ideals of American government are studied in the writings of American statesmen. Purely American types of

character, such as the pioneer, river-boat crew, and down-easterners, are searched for in the novels of Mark Twain, Hamlin Garland, and Edith Wharton. The students attempt by a critical survey of present-day drama, movies, radio, magazines, and newspapers to acquire an understanding of the mind, spirit, and moral tone of American life, to formulate some composite picture of modern American culture and to evaluate their own tastes and interests.

The work in social science for the twelfth year is quite unique in both method and content. During the tenth and eleventh years, students have learned to use the library, to appraise sources, and to solve problems requiring some research. In the twelfth year emphasis is placed upon the development of scientific techniques for solving problems, and upon the use of sources other than books. Students state their own problems, compile their own bibliographies, do their own investigating, and summarize the results of these investigations. Formal recitations are practically dispensed with; at the time scheduled for a class, members may be in the library or in a conference or on a field trip. After a brief orientation unit on the family as an historical institution the family is studied in relation to its environment; that is, from the point of view of educational facilities, welfare, housing, etc. Agencies such as the juvenile court, domestic relations court, community centers, and the Brush Foundation are visited. These visits result in a compilation of significant problems of family life, most of which can be grouped under a unit on economic security or a unit on psychology. Economic security is considered from the two aspects of acquiring and of spending an income. Prominent citizens of Cleveland are called in to lecture on their vocations. Investments, life insurance, techniques of wise buying, budgeting, and services of bureaus such as Consumer's Research are among the topics selected for investigation. The formation and control of habits, development of personality, sex, religion—in general, the science of living together are matters of such great concern to seniors in high school that the unit on psychology really becomes a brief course in psychology.

In English the subject for the senior year is the individual and his relationships: (1) with his family and environment; (2) with his friends and society; (3) with himself. *The Mill on the Floss* and *Hamlet* are read intensively, while wide reading in Victorian and modern novels is encouraged. A variety of lyric poems and essays based on such themes as solitude, love, death, and immortality, and finally *Macbeth*, as an interpretation of inordinate ambition, are studied. One of the most important projects of the year is the compiling of an anthology of favorite prose and poetry. Students are encouraged to search for their own reading material and to write whenever they have a desire to express their own ideas.

The three-year course of study in English is designed to stimulate enthusiasms, to establish values, to widen horizons, and to relate literature and

creative expression to thinking and living. Somewhat the same claim can be made for the course of study in art. In the tenth year, one and one half periods a week from either English or social science are given to art. This time is devoted to illustrated lectures by the art teacher, to demonstrations by sculptors and painters, to visits to the Cleveland Museum of Art, and to self expression on the part of the students. The illustrated lectures are planned in consultation with the social science and English departments and hence are designed to bring out or to emphasize certain facts. For example, there are two lectures on the personality of the artist—one given over to artists who were shaped by their period and environment, and the other to artists who greatly influenced the people of their times. There are lectures on modern architecture and Frank Lloyd Wright with a discussion of the elements of his greatness. A series of lectures on art in the machine age emphasizes the influence of the machine upon design, and lectures on French painting before and after the Revolution show how art reflects changes in the social order.

The twelfth grade art work consists of lectures mainly by members of the staff of the Cleveland Museum of Art under the joint direction of the art teacher and of Dr. Thomas Munro who is intensely interested in the New Curriculum experiment. An art survey course is organized for the purpose of giving the students an understanding of some of the important relationships of the arts in time and place, and also for the purpose of bringing into orderly sequence such scattered impressions as the students may already have. Lectures deal with archaeology, sculpture, and painting.

The art for the eleventh year is part of a unified course in creative writing, music, and art which is given to eleventh year students. Since this experiment in creative arts is to many people the most interesting and the most unusual feature of the New Curriculum work at Shaker, I should like to describe it in detail.

Only a relatively small amount of time is given to this course. Each of the two junior classes is scheduled separately for one period of writing and one of art each week, while the two groups are brought together once a week for music.

The aim in the creative writing is "to develop not only pleasure in creation, but also the recognition and appreciation of imaginative and beautiful writing"; in art, "to develop understanding and enjoyment of art through expression"; in music, the purpose is "to strengthen the sense of harmony, melody, and tone color, and to emphasize rhythmic patterns." The teachers who planned this work believe that expression is the most natural and effective approach to appreciation. They believe also that youth enjoys expressing himself; and that if his interpretation is an outgrowth of experience rather than a forced effort to follow definite rules, he will lose self-consciousness and reveal his own personality. The steps, then, in the

learning process are feeling, expression, criticism, appreciation, and finally again expression.

In accordance with this point of view, technique is dealt with as simply and briefly as possible. There is a studied avoidance of the strained situation in which a football hero groans because his assignment calls for the writing of a poem or the painting of a picture. Individuality, rather than form, is stressed in classes where the majority are intended by nature to be neither writers nor painters.

The themes selected for this unified study are rhythm, color, and unity. Rhythm is an inevitable choice because it is fundamental and all-pervasive. Color is chosen because of its universal appeal. Unity is chosen because of its importance in all three arts and because of the opportunity that it gives to make a complete whole of the year's work.

Integration, again, is achieved by the stressing of various aspects of the basic themes rather than by actual day-by-day parallelism of subject matter. Frequently, similar material is used in all three classrooms. For example, the rhythm characteristic of primitive races is illustrated by the tom-tom in music, the negro spiritual in music and writing, and the African Mask in art. Frequently, also, the students themselves wish to handle the same subject matter in two different mediums of expression. For instance, a few weeks ago after hearing a negro singer in the music class, the English classes decided to write negro poetry.

The study of rhythm in the classes in creative writing begins with a short history of rhythm as the natural expression of races, illustrated by simple and primitive but highly rhythmical poems, among which are Indian war songs, negro poetry, and ancient ballads. Individual composition is approached and stimulated by the recollection of common sounds, such as a horse trotting or rain falling, and by carefully described scenes of regulated motion, such as the dance of flames or a peasant woman walking with a balanced urn on her head. No special devices are suggested by the teacher, but the point is made that sound or motion can be more subtly conveyed than by actual descriptions. After a few moments of quiet thought, the students attempt to express their conceptions of something they remember. Even in these first attempts there are obvious efforts to express rhythm by words or by patterns of words rather than by choice of subject; and although nothing whatever is said about form, the majority of students write poetry rather than prose.

This period of expression is followed by a very thorough discussion of students' writings, clarified by the reading of poems and prose in which ideas similar to those chosen by the students have been used. Revision of first attempts and more writing follow. Finally an expert reader is called in to read Vachel Lindsay's *Congo* and other poems characterized by striking and elemental rhythm.

* Here is one of the finished products of the work in creative writing, the author of which is now a freshman at Barnard College :

RHYTHM

There's rhythm in the wind, and rhythm in the water
In the movements of the trees and in ripples of laughter
In the path of a cloud, and a mule's silhouette
In clothes that are flapping in the breeze, still wet
In the gait of a blindman a-fumbling his way
Or the tip of a wagon full and over with hay
In the cock of milady's new Easter hat
Or some silly word—such as : “Jehoshophat!”

There's rhythm in the slant of the wind-driven rain
In the beating of the surf or the hum of a plane,
In the chatter of a child or a sewing bee
In the colors of the sky, the land, and silken sea ;
In wrinkled old hands that are almost still
And the dance of the dew fairies atop a lone hill.
There's rhythm in the clinking of a prison guard's keys
And the monotonous rolling past of silent centuries.

—Benita Blair.

The study of rhythm in the art classes begins with a simple statement to the effect that an artist can create the illusion of movement in a picture by the way he draws a moving object such as a sailboat or a race horse, or by the way he draws objects swayed by an invisible force such as the wind. Students are told that they can find out how the artist does this, either by attempting a drawing of motion themselves or by studying the compositions of professional artists. They are then asked to make a free composition with charcoal of *The Wind Blowing Trees*, bearing in mind that their subject is the wind rather than the trees. These compositions are posted and discussed thoroughly by members of the group and analyzed for typical devices for the creation of motion.

Students are gradually led to realize that sensations of motion may be given by any of the elements an artist uses—line, form, or color. They learn from a study of class compositions that certain positions of lines show motion more than others, that detached spots have “visual pull,” and that repetition of lines and shapes increases the sensation of movement. Further creative experiences make use of subjects such as *Under the Sea*, the designing of an African mask, and the decoration of a pottery plate. These periods of creative expression are always followed by class discussion and criticism and

* The remainder of Miss Bowen's paper is largely reprinted, by permission of *Progressive Education*, from an article appearing in that magazine, November, 1935.

the study, by means of lantern slides, of similar efforts in authentic works of art. The point is made that rhythm may exist in the composition of objects which are not in motion, and time is usually found for an illustrated lecture by a member of the staff of the Cleveland Museum of Art on *Primitive Art in Africa*.

Because of the necessity of having one large class rather than two smaller ones actual creation cannot characterize the work in music. The point of view that an individual interpretation of the mood of a composer is itself a form of creative art is accepted, and every effort is made to stimulate student enjoyment of music through participation. Materials that are used range from simple melodic lines to symphonies and grand operas. The elemental rhythms of primitive dances, of the clapping of hands or the stamping of feet, and of the beating of a tom-tom are analyzed and the fundamentals of time values explained. Students are made to realize that the human body functions rhythmically and that sports such as swimming, skating, dancing are a combination of physical experience and musical consciousness. Records of music characterized by sweeping rhythm—*Nutcracker Suite* *Waltzes*, *Tales from Vienna Woods*, etc.—are played; students participate in singing folk songs, negro spirituals, and cowboy songs.

The study of rhythm in creative art gradually merges into the study of color. After an explanation of the merest rudiments of color, the art teacher asks the students to paint a wave or water in motion, using the sequence of hues, yellow, yellow green, blue green, and blue with the addition of white. Next an effort is made to control speed and the direction of movement in color by the simple problem of painting fire, using the sequence of hues, yellow, yellow orange, red orange, red, violet red with the addition of blue. Color contrasts are then discussed and illustrated, after which students are asked to paint a back drop in a color related to that of the act curtain but in contrast to a figure representing a dance.

The study of color in the classes in creative writing begins with the picturing of remembered scenes of color. There is the usual criticism and weighing of values, followed by the study of examples of similar themes in literature. Figures of speech are introduced as *color* in language. Rhythm and color are tied together in an appreciative study of *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*. The approach to these poems by way of expression rather than by way of Milton and the seventeenth century proves an extremely happy one. The reading of Rupert Brook's *The Great Lover* as a modern counterpart of the pleasures of a cultivated man stimulates the students to write on the subject *The Things I Care About at Sixteen*.

Color in music is considered from the point of view of tone with its variations in pitch and quality. Students become aware that voices and musical instruments differ in quality or tone color and that the same voice or instrument can express widely differing emotions or moods.

The theme of unity is developed by means of a study of drama, largely because the staging of a play requires the use of so many arts. Unity is considered from the four points of view of action, conflict, crisis, and atmosphere. Settings and atmospheres are written for stated plots, stage settings are drawn in color or painted, and the place of music in the theater is discussed. There is the usual criticism of students' work aided by reviews of settings of actual plays and a study of methods that have been used in well known plays to secure unity.

After conducting this experiment in creative arts for more than two years, the teachers who planned it are absolutely convinced that there is no substitute for the approach to appreciation through creative experience.

It is too early to appraise the results of the experiment as a whole. The students who entered at the beginning in the fall of 1933 are now in their freshman year in college. Reports are just beginning to come to us from both students and college authorities. A number of students have reported that they believe that the new curriculum work taught them to budget their time and to approach a problem more scientifically. A group of boys who entered the Case School of Applied Science in Cleveland complain that they feel the need of more training in formal grammar and expository writing. One girl is quite surprised that her personal opinions are neither solicited nor treated with deference in college classes as they had been in high school. We expect to profit immeasurably from the constructive criticism which is coming to us from these college students and their instructors.

Florida Plan for Comprehensive Freshman English *

By J. HOOPER WISE

*Chairman of Comprehensive Course: Reading, Speaking, and Writing,
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With the coming of the General College at the University of Florida, a study of what should constitute a comprehensive English course for freshmen was at once instituted. The various committees involved in this study were familiar with reports on the status of freshman English in general and with the work at Chicago, Minnesota, and other institutions where distinct departures from the old order had been made. There was no disposition to disregard or discount the existing order merely because it existed and we were changing our English program. We accepted whatever seemed good from whatever source it came. In most respects our conditions were not the same as those in other institutions. Consequently, our objectives were not wholly consistent with theirs, and we thought it imperative to make our materials and procedures compatible with our aims.

The committees felt that what was needed was to make an analysis of the needs of freshmen in the light of their place in a social organization, as well as with reference to the courses which they were to take in the Upper Division. Moreover, in keeping with the spirit of the General College, which aims to give the student a broad, integrated knowledge of himself and the world around him, the committees thought of a comprehensive freshman English course as a part of the whole General College program. As a result, much of the materials used is valuable not only for developing skills and abilities in the use of language, but also in broadening the student's horizon in respect to his place in the social, physical, and biological world. It was, then, upon certain philosophical conclusions and from certain psychological findings that the course committee undertook the preparation of the outline of the materials and the procedure. It seemed necessary for any course which passes under the name of a comprehensive English course that it should serve two general functions: in the first place, such a course should be designed to help students to get thought; and, in the second place, it should enable them to give or express thought. Each of these functions was thought of in its two-fold aspect. Getting or receiving thought demanded attention to develop within students the ability to follow the spoken word and the ability to get the meaning from the printed page. The second function made it necessary to engender in the students the ability to express themselves in oral language and through the written word. Thus, it may be seen that the thought of our course committee was to attack the problem of English

* An address delivered before the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 1936.

from the broad viewpoint of enabling the students to get and to give thought content in a more acceptable form. The outcome was a comprehensive English course entitled: *Reading, Speaking, and Writing*. Any freshman English course which claims to be comprehensive could do no less than provide for establishing skills and abilities along the lines suggested by this title.

With these broad principles in mind we turned our attention to the relative importance of the functions embraced in a comprehensive English course, such as the above title infers. It seemed obvious that the major stress should be placed upon reading. All experiments in point, on whatever educational level, have shown that one's ability to do acceptable school work correlates to a high degree with the ability to read with understanding. Moreover, we were fully aware that many writing and speaking difficulties grow out of a complete dearth of ideas and vehicles of ideas on the part of those expected to write and speak. Both ideas and vehicles of ideas, we felt sure, could best be attained through a wide and varied reading program. Consequently, we attacked first and foremost this problem. In the title of this course the very order of the words *Reading, Speaking, and Writing* indicates generally the relative stress placed upon each of these functions. Our course is in nowise a composition course in the sense in which beginning freshman English courses have too often been throughout the country.

In the second place, we were not unmindful of the value of capitalizing on student interests. We forsook entirely the old idea that a course could be profitable only, as an English head-master inferred, when the material was hard and thoroughly detested by the students. It is not to be construed that we attempted to offer any substitute for substantial work on the part of our students. We merely attacked our problem at the point of student interest; in other words, we made a psychological approach.

In the third place, we kept in mind always that our problem was to develop in our students certain skills and abilities, the possession of which they should be able to demonstrate in a novel situation. For instance, we set out to develop in our students the ability to read rapidly with understanding not a *given* passage but *any* passage within the range of their comprehension.

Based upon these principles, a comprehensive freshman English course was constructed along the lines and with the results now to be set forth:

The comprehensive freshman English course of the General College of the University of Florida requires five (5) class hours per week, distributed as follows: one (1) in lecture sections, two (2) in discussion groups, and two (2) in the Writing Laboratory. The course has for its basic aims the engendering of the ability (1) to get the meaning from the printed page with a more than average rate of speed, (2) to enjoy good writing, and (3) to communicate ideas effectively in both oral and written discourse. The student's degree of achievement of these aims is evidenced by his ability (1) to analyze another's writing, (2) to understand and use a wide range of words, (3) to condense another's thought, (4) to get the meaning from

visual and graphic aids and devices, (5) to understand and enjoy various literary forms, such as drama, novel, essay, short story, biography, etc., (6) to display a wide acquaintance with good literature, (7) to communicate ideas effectively in oral discourse, (8) to spell correctly the commonly misspelled words, (9) to write in correct form social and business letters, and (10) to gather thought material, arrange it in outline form, and finally present it in effectively written discourse.

To aid in the accomplishment of these objectives, both general and specific, four texts are used as a basis. One of these deals with modern essays discussing the topics presented in the lectures, another is a collection of literary productions of various types, and always of quality, appearing within the past half century, a third affords exercises which help the student to master the skills and abilities sought in the course, while a fourth serves as a handbook of reference in writing and in the mastery of such techniques as the use of the library and the taking of notes. Since the purpose of the course is to engender certain abilities, it is obvious that mere rote learning of these texts is of little or no value. These books serve only to provide the student with exercises, the proper carrying out of which will aid him in achieving the abilities sought in the course.

As set out above, the work of the course falls into three types of class procedure. Once each week the student attends a lecture group of approximately two hundred (200). At that time there is a lecture on such subjects as "The American Scene," "Sports," "War and Peace," "College Life and Problems," all topics of immediate value and lively interest to college students. At these meetings, the student takes notes on the lecture, indicating the course of thought followed and questions raised in his mind. The lecture notes are examined frequently, and often brief written tests are administered to determine how well the student is mastering the ability to follow the spoken word and record the thoughts in proper relationship. These lectures, which in every case are carefully thought out and organized, and interestingly presented by the instructor or administrative officer on the University campus best fitted for the undertaking, are universally well received. On occasions the students register their approval by bursting into applause at the end of the period.

Following these lectures, the student attends twice each week a discussion group of approximately thirty (30). At these meetings there is led a free and informal discussion of the preceding lecture and of the essays in the text which deal with the same subject as that discussed by the lecturer. The purpose of the procedure is to help the student read with understanding. As an aid to the students, various techniques, such as finding key words, topic sentences, central themes, making outlines, and writing summaries, abstracts, and *précis*, are used.

One of the points stressed in the discussion sections is the building of vocabulary. In order that this phase of the work may assume a degree of definiteness there has been included in the course outline the list of one

thousand seven hundred words found in Pitkin's book, *The Art of Rapid Reading*. This list of words is composed of the rarest of Thorndike's list of ten thousand words most commonly found in books and newspapers ordinarily read. In addition, about twenty-five words which freshmen are not likely to know but which should be in the vocabulary of any moderately well read man are chosen from the lecture and readings of the week. These, too, are incorporated in the course outline, making a total of two thousand two hundred words. Regular vocabulary study is encouraged and urged. As a check on the student's progress in this direction, a vocabulary test is given at intervals of two to four weeks. These tests are taken largely from the words referred to above. A few other words from the week's materials are included in each test in order that the student may not conclude that any word not on the list, even though he does not know its meaning, is not important. These regular tests include not only definitions, but also some items that have to do with the spelling and pronunciation of certain words commonly misspelled or mispronounced.

It has been said that great stress is placed upon the question of reading from the standpoint of both comprehension and rate. This part of the course is initiated in the lecture periods when two lectures are given, one on the general problem of reading and another on the causes of faulty reading and the means of overcoming reading difficulties. These lectures are so timed that they are given just when the scores from the standardized reading test (Iowa Silent Reading Test-Advanced) administered at the opening of the fall term are ready. Instructors immediately hold individual conferences with their students and give them the results of the test. Vocabulary study and other matters which have a direct bearing on reading are given a fresh impetus. In addition, each student is motivated to begin definitely on a reading project to improve his rate.

The lecturer has already explained the psychological and the physiological nature of the reading process. Upon receipt of their scores on the reading tests, the students begin a ten weeks' period during which they purposely set about to lengthen the perceptual span, to shorten the period of fixation, to reduce "inner speech" to a minimum, and thereby to increase their rate of reading. Once each week on a designated day each student carries out a self-administered timed reading, using books set apart on the library reserve for this specific purpose. He then records the result of his timed reading on his *Progress Chart of Reading* and locates the point on his *Graph*, both of which forms are contained in the course outline. In this manner, each student has constantly before himself a graphic picture of his reading progress.

This emphasis upon vocabulary extension and upon increasing the rate of reading is augmented by almost daily exercises in selecting the central thought, in summarizing passages, in writing précis, in making outlines, in locating materials, in doing all those exercises which aid one in mastering

the ability to comprehend the written word. All of these, in turn, reflect their influence upon increasing the rate, since one's ability to comprehend and one's ability to read rapidly show a high degree of correlation. At no time is this work allowed to become mere humdrum labor. The instructors tap student interest through the use of varied materials which are at once stimulating, thought-provoking, and timely.

While the course is thought of as a year-course and no strict semester division is provided for, the major portion of the latter half of the year is devoted to literature. For this part of the course an anthology, containing material which has for the most part been produced rather recently and all of which has been produced within the last half century, is used as a basic text. The whole object of this phase of the course is to read and enjoy the various types of literature. The lectures are constructed along lines to show the pleasure to be derived from an acquaintance and association with good literature. In the discussion sections, the literature itself is read and discussed. The purpose is to study literature, not *about* literature.

Again a psychological approach is made. For instance, we begin with the motion picture. Two pictures, selected by a faculty committee, are presented on successive weeks. The students, who have heard two lectures on the subject—one on the "Screen Drama" and another on "Why Go to the Movies?"—attend the theater with an enlarged background of appreciation. Moreover, they attend with certain definite questions in mind to guide them in a study of the picture and in the class discussion which follows each picture. From a study of the motion picture drama—the form of literature nearest the average American citizen, young and old—the student is motivated in a study of modern drama of the legitimate stage. With certain inhibitions against literature gradually overcome, the student is then introduced to other types of literary forms in this order: the modern short story, the biography, the novel, and poetry. Stimulating and instructive lectures are presented in these various fields. These are followed by class discussion of the specific selections of the types under study. Every effort is put forth to make the literature attractive and enjoyable with a view to promoting in the student a desire to read more material of similar type and character.

At this point, something should be said of the problem of handling parallel reading. About five hundred books have been purchased for use in our comprehensive English course. These books have been selected with two criteria in mind: Is the book likely to be interesting to beginning college students? Is the book worth while in style and content? When the books have been selected, the next step is the preparation of an interesting and suggestive annotation of each. The titles of the books are then placed in alphabetical order and included in the course outline. They are now reclassified into small unannotated lists grouped according to subject matter. That is, books dealing with the general topic "War and Peace" are listed in

the course outline along with the lecture and other reading material on this subject. When, therefore, a student becomes interested along a given line, additional material is readily available. Before beginning to read, the student may, by referring to the complete, annotated list, determine with some degree of assurance, whether he wishes to read a particular book. With these principles practiced and through the regular book salesmanship on the part of each instructor, the student ever feels at least some urge to read. Moreover, no stiff or mechanical means of book reports is employed. Chats about books are indulged in between students and instructors both in class and in conference.

Feeling, as we do, that any problem should be attacked objectively when such is possible, we secured a machine to test visual sensation and perception that we might determine those students who possessed some physiological handicap of which the student, in many instances, might not even be aware. Last year we discovered that approximately thirty-three per cent (33%) of our freshmen were laboring under some visual handicap which interfered directly with their chances for success in any situation where reading constitutes a major endeavor. Upon our recommendation most of the students with defects have consulted a physician with the result that many, through some corrective exercises or through adjustment brought about by glasses, have entered upon their work free of a handicap which, in most cases, they did not realize was theirs.

The third phase of the work of the course is that provided for in the Writing Laboratory. Each student registered for our comprehensive English course is assigned to one weekly laboratory period of two hours' duration. To accommodate the whole group, the Laboratory is open daily from 8:00 to 12:00 and 1:00 to 5:00. Two instructors are regularly in charge each period of the day. The Laboratory is a well-lighted room approximately fifty feet by twenty-eight feet. The furniture consists of ten tables, each of which accommodates six students, and chairs. Each table in the Laboratory is provided with a dictionary and a book of synonyms. These, together with the handbook, a copy of which each student brings to his Laboratory period, constitute a trio of books which help the student in answering most composition questions. In addition, there may be found in the Laboratory one unabridged dictionary and several reference books for further consultation in case some question cannot be fully cleared up without their use. All written material is filed in steel cabinets, a cumulative folder being used to contain the work of each student. This provides a means of having together all of a student's work for purposes of comparison as a measure of development. Moreover, an opportunity for revision is afforded.

The instructors in the Writing Laboratory move about the room, aiding those students who are in need of help, or they sit at desks provided for them

and allow the students to bring their questions to be answered or their finished papers to be checked by the instructor in the students' presence. It has been said that each student brings to his laboratory period his handbook. This text has the usual key-number system of designating errors. At our request the publisher provided us with leaves cross-ruled exactly as the page of key numbers, omitting all wording or verbal explanations. As a result, there remains a series of numbered spaces approximately one inch square. These sheets are pasted inside the front cover opposite the regular keyed page, and on these in the appropriate space the instructor enters the date upon which he discovers the error represented by the key numbers. In this manner each student has in his own book his personal history of habitual errors. This assists the instructor in proceeding more intelligently with the student's future work, and aids the student in attacking his peculiar problem which is set out before him. Thus it may be seen that we do not attack broadside, but rather with a student's case history of errors before us. We concentrate on those habitual errors which through their frequent and persistent recurrence are providing the major source of the freshman's difficulty.

To concentrate our efforts—this time in a more general sense—a faculty committee made a study of the available research, both local and national, to determine the common composition errors made by freshmen. The result of the study was a card called "Self-Correction Card", which contains eight errors in grammar and five in punctuation listed in the form of questions and with references to the handbook used by the student. The instructors adopted the method of reading the student's paper and placing in the margin before the line in which an error occurred an "X" if the error was one of the eight in grammar, and a "P" if it was one in punctuation. The student then, armed with a dictionary, a book of synonyms, a handbook, and a self-correction card, corrects his own paper. It is necessary for the instructor to spend only an additional few seconds to check over the paper and help the student if he has been unable to correct his paper completely. Under this system it is evident that each student is thrown upon his own resources and made to share responsibility for his progress. Moreover, each student is given individual instruction. There are no general theme assignments. On the contrary, each student writes what he has to write, whether that be a letter to be mailed, a book report, an assignment from another course, or something of a creative nature.

Last year the eight hundred and seventy students enrolled in our comprehensive English course produced more than twenty thousand pieces of writing. These ran the entire gamut as to subject matter and type. During the second semester of last year we published a twenty-five page booklet entitled "Laboratory Literature," a copy of which was placed in the hands of each freshman. In this pamphlet was included some of the best material

produced up to that time. A few of the titles will illustrate the wide range of interest. We find, for instance, "Why I Am a Pacifist"; "Three Men on a Horse," a critical review of the three dramas read in class; "On Eating Spaghetti"; "On Locking the Barn," a clever denunciation of a bit of student misbehavior at a public performance; "For Thirty Pieces of Silver," an excellent short story; "Hell's Bells," an ode to the alarm clock; and "Dedicatory," an expression of emotion prompted by a complete and full resignation of the writer to the power of his love.

Perhaps some short selections will illustrate the character and the time-liness of topics chosen. In order to conserve space, let us use some brief poetry selections, since the prose essays and short stories run to greater lengths. Here we have a rather timid freshman student, using the spring season and other campus happenings as a background to express himself humorously about the student political set-up which is so elaborately and well worked out on the University of Florida campus.

SPRING COMES TO THE CAMPUS

When oaks put on their soft green coats,
 'tis spring!
 When political speakers split their throats,
 'tis spring!
 When the dogwood blooms o'er the campus leas
 And squirrels scamper up the tall pine trees
 And the politicians politick around like bees,
 'tis spring!

When a new sun-dial graces the green,
 'tis spring!
 When everywhere flowers and birds are seen,
 'tis spring!

Tho usually the bird is after your vote
 And hands you a political card or note
 Still, even in spite of what I've wrote,
 'tis spring!

—J. L. G.

Or another freshman, moved by the stately beauty of Florida pines, expresses through the medium of the white pine a high resolve not to fail.

PINUS STROBUS

Massive, rough-hewn, friendly trunk,
 Stolid bulk of simple grace,
 Sign of strength and surety,
 Pledge of home for farmer folk,

Promised cheer for rustic hearth,
Hold thy smooth strong limbs aloft
Staid and safe in winter wind ;
Success be yours!
Long outlive the raging storm!
To fail is death. . . .

—G. L. S.

From the description above of the work done in our Writing Laboratory, one should not conclude that we rely upon that elusive something called inspiration to furnish the mainspring for the student's productions. The lecture materials, the essays read, experiences on the campus, all these keep the student stocked with ideas except in rare cases where the student lacks development in powers of thinking and imagining. Instructors often go so far as to have their students prepare and present at the beginning of the hour brief outlines of the topic which they expect to handle during the period. Conscious and continued effort is made to dislodge from the student's mind the preconceived idea that he has come to "write a composition." He may produce several short bits of writing during one period, or he may work at a longer piece of writing over several successive periods.

Something should be said about the oral communication phase of our comprehensive English course. During the first two or three months of the course work, the attack upon the problem of oral communication is so apparently unstudied and informal that the student does not realize that he is being inducted into a program for speech improvement. Conscious effort is exercised to avoid the idea of preparation "to make a speech"; rather the problem of oral communication in its full sense is kept uppermost. The attention of the students is first called to the specific question of speech by the presentation of a series of lectures on such topics as "Hindrances to Effective Oral Communication," "Implications of the Conversational Mode of Speaking," and "The Use of the Body as an Aid to Effective Speaking." The students continue their class discussions with more specific preparation along certain lines to be presented in class. Instructors regularly hand to their students in private a check sheet which indicates the student's strong points as well as the matters needing attention. In conjunction with the course, a speech clinic is operated four hours a week under the direction of the members of the Department of Speech. Students handicapped by such difficulties as abnormal pitch, abnormal quality, poor articulation, lisping, and excessive nervous tension, are given special aid in overcoming these hindrances to effective oral communication. Accurate diagnosis charts are kept, and the final disposal of each case becomes a matter of record.

Students qualify in all General College courses at the University of Florida by passing comprehensive examinations administered by the Board of University Examiners. This fact tends to clarify the exact relationship of

student and instructor. Such an understanding makes it obvious that under such a system the student does not receive from his instructor marks which mean credits. Our students are made to understand that we instructors are interested in helping them achieve standards of English expected of a college-bred man by the better social circles, as well as those demanded of entrants to the Upper Division of the University. It is necessary, however, to keep the student constantly informed as to his progress in the course. As a result, frequent short unannounced tests are given. These are on the vocabulary study, the lectures, the reading material—in short, on any phase of the work that may be under consideration.

The comprehensive examination in our course is an actual attempt to determine to what extent the objectives of the course have been realized. Consequently, the examination, which contains objective material to the extent of about seventy-five per cent, is constructed to measure the student's ability to read, speak, and write—not what the student knows *about* reading, speaking, and writing. As a result, the material on the examination is for the most part new to the student. What he is expected to do is to show his ability to deal with a novel situation by applying certain principles and techniques. The examination, which is six hours in duration and administered in two three-hour sessions, is composed of fifty to sixty printed pages. To measure the student's ability to read with comprehension and with more than average rate of speed, sections of the examination cover such matters as reading for details, selecting words that direct thought, selecting topic sentences, phrasing the central idea, recognizing summaries and precis, making outlines, exhibiting a fair degree of mastery of words, and demonstrating a working knowledge of the University of Florida Library.

These exercises measure, in the main, reading in its more utilitarian aspects. Our course sets as an objective to help the student get a wide acquaintance with good books. As shown above, stress of a proper kind is brought to bear to get students to read widely, to make an acquaintance with many of the worth while books of literature. The examination endeavors to determine the student's acquaintance with well known books, authors, quotations, and characters. Some specific attention is directed toward the selections read in the course. The examination goes a step further and attempts to measure the student's appreciative and esthetic sense as applied to literature.

Ability to communicate effectively in oral language is demonstrated by an actual performance in which the student presents an extemporaneous two-minute talk on one of a group of previously assigned topics, and reads for one minute from material which he has made no preparation to read. In addition to this, the examination includes some objective material on what constitutes an effective speech. The student's writing is measured by having him demonstrate his ability to correct errors in the writing of another, to spell correctly words commonly misspelled, and to produce a composition

on a familiar topic, following an outline which is given. Thus, the student is given the opportunity to demonstrate his mastery of abilities, and has had reduced to a minimum the chance to give back to the instructor in May what was given in September.

We Americans like to think of ourselves as being practical. We pride ourselves in being pragmatic in our philosophy. We want to know whether a plan works and how well it works. If it works, we are willing to accept it; if it does not work, we reject it, no matter how beautiful the plan may be theoretically. However much we may feel this way, we teachers are prone to be quite traditional and proceed on the theory that what was good enough for our forefathers is good enough for us. Consequently, it is not an uncommon occurrence to find courses which do not give worthwhile results, to find courses in which the materials, the techniques, and the examinations are not compatible with avowed course objectives.

In our comprehensive freshman English course, we defined our objectives, established the materials to be used, and set up the techniques designed to help the student master the skills and abilities implied in the objectives. Throughout the year we were on the alert to measure objectively, where possible, the degree of success we were having in making our objectives outcomes. Some phases of a comprehensive English course can not be measured completely in an objective manner. In such cases as to whether a student uses more effective oral and written expression, recourse must be had to subjective evidence, to the opinions of the instructional staff.

But let us review some of the accomplishments and some of the more objective evidence of the success of the first year of operation of the comprehensive freshman English course of the University of Florida.

1. As measured by two forms of the Iowa Silent Reading Test, Advanced—one administered in September, the other in May—the following results were obtained:
 - a. In comprehension eighty per cent (80%) of the class in May were above the average of the class in September.
 - b. In rate of reading sixty-seven per cent (67%) of the class in May were above the September class average.
2. In an experiment to increase the rate of reading of freshmen, one hundred and thirty-three (133) students in fifty-four (54) days increased their rate from two hundred ninety-six and six tenths (296.6) words per minute to three hundred and ninety-three (393) words per minute, an increase of thirty-two and five tenths per cent (32.5%).
3. Six hundred and seventy-three (673) freshmen were tested for defects of visual sensation and perception with the result that two hundred and twenty-one (221), or thirty-two and eight tenths per cent (32.8%), were found defective and advised to consult their regular family physician or specialist. All of these visual defectives except fourteen (14) visited or were in process of visiting a doctor. Of those who had completed their consultation, correction through recommendation of glasses, through change of lenses, or through eye exercises was necessary in eighty-seven and

two tenths per cent (87.2%) of the cases. In this service alone incalculable aid in increasing rate and comprehension was given.

4. Thirty-three (33) freshmen suffering from such defects as stuttering, excessive nervous tension, poor articulation, abnormal pitch and quality, and lisping were given regular assistance throughout the year in our Speech Clinic, which was operated for four hours a week. Of these, twenty-three (23), or sixty-nine and seven tenths per cent (69.7%), showed improvement or completely overcame their speech defects.

5. In the matter of parallel reading which was provided for in the manner described above, only six (6) men out of a class of eight hundred and seventy (870) freshmen, failed to do any reading, whereas one man read sixty thousand (60,000) pages. Fifty-six (56) men read ten thousand (10,000) or more pages. The median number of pages read was found to be four thousand eight hundred (4,800), an amount of reading, I must confess, below our hopes and aspirations. This reading, it should be repeated, was done without the ordinary coercion, and no student, we believe, left our course with his mind set unfavorably toward good books and reading. Student expressions from all sides led to the opposite conclusion; namely, that the students in our comprehensive English course reacted more and more favorably to our parallel reading program.

6. I have said that there is not available any purely objective means by which to measure oral and written expression. There are measures of what a student knows *about* effective oral and written expression. Notwithstanding the lack of formal training in these directions, our students showed no greater weakness than those under the old system of continued composition instruction. As to performance, they certainly were as good generally and in some respects better than those who came through in years before our course began operation. We arrived at this conclusion through a measure of the student's ability to correct errors in the oral and written expression of another, through our own observation of the creative products of the students, and through the expression of instructors in other courses or departments.

Our comprehensive English course is now well into its second year of operation. Last year we were able to attain the accomplishments set out above. This year we are already in many respects far in advance of our status at this time last year. Our project to increase the rate of reading is being entered upon with more enthusiasm and by the entire freshman class. The students have made considerably more advance in parallel reading at this time than was the case a year ago. In general, the work of the course is going forward with more thoroughness, more interest, and more order. We have, of course, profited greatly by last year's experience. It has proved highly satisfying to those who administer and teach the course that these good results have been obtained and that in the process the students have come out with a liking for the course and the materials contained therein. This attitude was clearly revealed in a survey made by an Upper Division student as a project in a course in letter and report writing. Moreover, the apparent value and reasonableness of the course have made a strong appeal to the instructional staff, and in their full and sincere coöperation, the instructors have thrown themselves into the work with reckless abandon.

Report of Fraternal Delegate to the North Central Association

By H. B. HEIDELBERG

Superintendent of Schools, Clarksdale, Mississippi

The 1936 meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, to which I was the fraternal delegate from the Southern Association, was held in the Stevens Hotel at Chicago on April 22-25, 1936.

I attended part of the meetings of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, the Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education, and the Commission on Secondary Schools. Along with the fraternal delegates from other regional associations, I was given a place to speak on the program at the annual banquet on Friday evening.

I wish to thank President Davis and the Association for the opportunity afforded me as delegate of making new contacts among the educational leaders of the Middle West and of observing the North Central Association in operation.

At the request of Dr. C. O. Davis, managing editor of the *North Central Association Quarterly*, I submitted to him for publication the following general impressions which I received from my visit:

1. A definite trend toward qualitative standards as a partial substitute for objective standards in evaluating the work of secondary schools and institutions of higher education.
2. An intense feeling of responsibility for providing diversified opportunities for the training and employment of the millions of youth coming out of the high schools and colleges.
3. The strong prevalence of a commendable spirit of religious tolerance, as evidenced by the unanimous nomination by a Protestant nominating committee and by the subsequent election of the dean of a Catholic institution for president of the Association.
4. A surprising amount of opposition manifested in the Secondary School Commission to requiring the master's degree of *both* superintendents and high school principals entering new positions, as one of the standards for a member secondary school.

(In the Southern Association, beginning with the session 1937-38, the master's degree, or other graduate degree, will be required of all superintendents and high school principals entering new positions in member secondary schools.)

5. The prevalence of a growing sentiment for limiting the period of continuous service for officers of the Association and for members of the several Commissions.

6. The superior quality of leadership displayed by Mr. L. N. McWhorter, President of the Association.

7. New efforts to increase the field of service of the North Central Association to its member schools and institutions of higher learning.

How Best to Serve Both College and Secondary School*

By L. N. McWHORTER

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis

There are three implications in the particular phrasing of this rather cumbersome title :

1. That colleges and secondary schools are in need of some kind of service ;
2. That the service which they need should come from without the institutions themselves ; and
3. That the service would be most effective and most profitable if it served the two educational levels as a unit.

I don't know that I agree with any one of these theses ; and it will take the whole of this paper to find out, I hope, the truth.

There are a number of matters in which an educational institution may be presumed to need service in these particularly dynamic times.

1. *The great changes in the enrollment of colleges and secondary schools, both in absolute figures and in relation to the enrollment of elementary schools, have created a problem of sheer mass.*

It has been assumed that the obvious way is the only way to face this problem ; viz., more and bigger buildings, more teachers and instructors, with an occasional experiment in lengthened days and staggered programs ; and the key to all these solutions is more money to spend. I think we may call this a service from without. At least no high school athletic faculty manager or class play coach in my range of acquaintance, in the throes of a successful season or an outstanding production, has ever raised more than enough money to make a partial payment on a set of athletic field gates or a grand piano ; and while university football seasons have occasionally eventuated in field houses, increased legislative appropriations, or enlarged endowments, our old grads have, in the main, built our college buildings, and established chairs of this and that.

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The seriousness of this need and the magnitude of this problem are indicated, or rather hinted at, by these figures taken from the current statistics of my own city. In September, 1926, the on-roll figures in our public schools were : grades one to six, 39,371 ; grades seven to nine, 16,214 ; grades ten to twelve, 10,087. *The ratio of grades one to six to grades ten to twelve was nearly four to one.* In September, 1936, the same figures were : grades one to six, 35,422 ; grades seven to nine, 20,203 ; grades ten to twelve, 17,080.

* An address delivered before the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 1936.

And the present ratio of grades one to six to grades ten to twelve is only two to one. The enrollment in the senior high school had increased 69.3 per cent, while the enrollment in grades one to six had decreased practically ten per cent. It may be interesting to note, in passing, that the age groups from which these high school pupils were drawn in both 1926 and 1936 showed little difference in numbers.

Here, then, is a very clearly defined need of the college and the secondary schools, and here, then, is a way to meet it, as we have always in the past, sometimes imperfectly, met the same problem. More pupils equals more buildings plus more teachers, and more money. In considering this, the first and the simplest of our common difficulties, the anxious, studious, conscientious soul may be bothered by some embarrassing questions. Will this problem persist; or will it be necessary soon to close the new buildings we now erect and dedicate as well as "discontinue the services" of newly added teachers and instructors? Is there any other way of facing these problems, whether they are temporary or permanent, than the traditional one of increased expenditure? If the answer to that question is "No," is our position solid enough to assure us that appropriations and endowments will continue to keep pace with our needs? These are some of the issues which I should like to discuss later.

2. *Another problem which is facing colleges and secondary schools today is the problem of WHAT to teach.*

Some of you—and I—did our classroom work in the field of Latin and won a great victory when we increased the secondary school program from three to four books of Caesar; from four to six orations of Cicero; and from four to six books of Vergil. Later and more progressive teachers of Latin have followed other gods and have chosen to modify the sacred sum, have dared to select not only other Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil, but even other Latin authors and other authors of Latin. To one who for eighteen years taught, blushing, the philanderings of Aeneas to seventeen-going-on-eighteen-year-old boys and girls, this has indeed been heresy and worse. But that is ancient history now, and the new type, as well as the new numbers, of youth that must be served by the new secondary school has forever driven into the background the now petty problems of the classics.

It is with deep regret that I view its passing, a regret that is touched with tender sentiment; but high school Latin has not been able to stand upon its feet whenever and wherever the support of the college entrance requirement in Latin has been shortened. Pupils do not choose to take the added years when they don't have to. One tear is all we may be permitted to shed.

The content of a high school curriculum today and the content of a college curriculum also *are* undergoing a revision and an evolution, which are the outgrowths of a consideration of new needs, new concepts, new contacts, more complicated associations and environments, and, most significant of

all, new standards of social and mental growth. The monuments which have been erected to traditional fields of knowledge, and even the slender shaft built to commemorate the Three R's, have been badly shaken.

We seem to have come to a place in our educational philosophy and practices where sufficiency and achievement and attainment in learning are not measured in relation to, or in terms of, a predetermined, albeit growing, mass of knowledge, of theory, or of principles but in relation to, and in terms of, the satisfaction of individual curiosities, interests, and needs; the power to think, to reason, and to decide; and the possession of some kind of social attitudes.

I am afraid that the terms "scholar" and "learned man" do not have the same connotation that they had thirty or forty or, at any rate, fifty years ago. In the first place, the scholar must think ahead, not behind. His capital is not so much "lore" as it is "prediction" and "prophecy." His decisions and outlooks, based upon *accumulations* and *heritages* it is true, must nevertheless take into significant account *trends* and *movements* and the ever changing concept of progress. In the second place, he cannot be a recluse, but must live vitally among numerous and varied and significant experiences of life, participating actively in most of them and studying carefully all of them. And in the third place, he must project his personality, his skill, his wisdom, and his ability into the thinking of the generation. He probably won't live long if he tries to do all this, but what a life it will be!

I wonder if the curriculum we are offering today in both secondary school and college is best suited to round out symmetrically such a personality; and even if it is, does it have sufficient *variability* if not actual *variation* to serve the ninety-five per cent of young people who will not become scholars but who are in our high schools and colleges *now*—to say nothing of the others who are beginning to think that there may be something in this education racket after all.

Whether we should try to serve them or not is another question to which we shall come later, but I am sure I have said enough to indicate that I believe here is a second problem which colleges and secondary schools should attempt to solve: the building of new high school and college curricula suited to this dynamic age. I am convinced, also, that there is need of some kind of service in the solution of this problem, and I am not *altogether* sure that the source of that service can be found in the present equipment of the institutions that need it.

3. *Perhaps a much more significant and pressing problem is HOW TO TEACH.*

I hope that, somewhere in your program this week, someone is discussing the problem of indoctrination, buried perchance under a concealing caption or a deluding thesis.

It seems to me, however, that the problem of method is not merely one of the issue between indoctrination and free experimentation but also a question

of the most effective way of stimulating growth and inducing learning, and we have not yet answered that question at all universally. We have answered it in relation to certain selected and segregated groups of students, and we have answered it in relation to certain specific fields of instruction; but, in general, in the face of the greater range of individual differences which are represented in pupil and student personnel today, in relation to many a traditional field of instruction, and in relation to every *new* field of instruction, we have not answered the question of method.

Such attempts as we have made to solve this problem have naturally and necessarily confined themselves to the principles of group, or even mass, teaching. That has been the way that individual pupils or students have come to us for instruction: in classes, or groups, or masses. Ever since scholars sat at the feet of Plato or disciples at the feet of Jesus, that is the way of learning. To ask a simple question, or satisfy a curiosity, two or three people have gathered together and approached a recognized or a rumored authority who could minister to their need. And when these authoritative personalities were institutionalized into churches and schools and dioceses and school systems, the same practice continued to prevail, except that, in time, churches taught creeds and schools taught the curriculum, and the methods were adopted which guaranteed the acceptance of the creed and clinched the curriculum.

I am not even commenting upon the fact that you and I have long since learned that the most desirable outcome of the educational process as it operates at all levels of instruction is no longer the mastery of the subject matter of the curriculum but the growth of the individual in life experiences, in life associations; in habits, in abilities, and in powers. If this is true, the question of method is not primarily a question of the indoctrination of facts, of theories, or of beliefs, but a matter of establishing a medium and a situation which most graphically and most naturally simulate or represent or actually duplicate the medium and the situation of life itself, so that through this medium and this situation the pupil or the student may experience actually, may practice daily, the thing he is to do and the thing he is to be.

That is all bunk; that is all nightmare; that is all crazy abstraction; and worst of all, that smacks of the progressive movement. However, there is just enough doubt in my mind about the greater effectiveness of the traditional methods which *are* employed in secondary schools and colleges today, the indignant protests of principals and deans to the contrary notwithstanding, for me to rest my case of the need for a discussion, at least, of the problem of methodology on the fantastic picture which I drew a paragraph ago.

4. *Finally, not to make the list too long, there is the problem of WHOM TO TEACH.*

I have already touched upon the fact that we have accepted into our secondary schools and colleges vast numbers of boys and girls, of young men

and women, who seemed in the new order of things to belong there. What we have really done, of course, has been to come to a recognition and an acceptance of the *factors* which, under present conditions, have kept pupils and students in school longer, have brought back into school pupils and students who thought they were through, and have served to stimulate others with a curiosity or a longing to get something out of the established institutions of learning. Already many a teacher has sighed and groaned at the meager or strange, or even bizarre, intelligences with which she sees herself faced in her English or history classes today. It's not entirely a new thing to have dull minds in her classes, but once it was possible, after a few weeks, to go so far beyond or above them in her teaching that they would fade out of the picture, discouraged and dismayed. Now they don't fade out, and the first thing she knows she wonders if she isn't under obligation to teach them something.

What is school for anyway? Or rather, whom is school for anyway? How long is this thing going to last? How many more of these semi-intelligences have we got to take in? Does schooling for all the people mean just that? Is there no measuring rod, or sieve, or threshold, or hurdle, or something to keep out of high school or college some of these young people who feign would lower our standards and stagger our self-respect?

Well, it's a question, and I am not willing to concede that in a dynamic democracy we can leave it unanswered. Somebody or something, maybe falsely or ineffectually or even tragically, at any rate differently from us, is going to educate this horde of young people between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five, if we don't. Maybe we should think twice before we shirk the responsibility, turn down the proposal, or reject the opportunity. And if we should decide to do something about it, we're going to need service from somebody.

I have tried to present to you, rather blatantly perhaps, four of the great problems of the present day high school or college which seem to me to demand attention and service.

First, the problem of numbers, of the accommodation of the great mass of young people which, from perfectly natural causes, is enrolled in our high schools and colleges at this particular time.

Second, the problem of the selection of a curriculum best suited to meet the needs of these same young people.

Third, the problem of the revision of methods of instruction to meet the needs of a revised curriculum and of new objectives.

And fourth, the problem of the selection or segregation or distribution or elimination of at least some of pupil or student personnel which would like to find some place for growth in our high schools and colleges.

I am afraid that I must conclude that the high school or college as it was built a generation ago, as its faculty was trained and experienced, and as its

curriculum was organized, cannot successfully solve these problems without some type of new service within or without its institutional structure.

There are, outside of our schools and colleges, plenty of agencies which are perfectly willing to render service in meeting our important problems. Some of these agencies are carefully and intelligently organized, have a rather definite concept of the needs of education, or are eager to be informed about them, have facilities and equipment not only to diagnose and evaluate these needs but to serve them, and are generous with time and effort and money and man power in an honest and effective attempt to solve our most serious problems.

The American Council on Education, the various educational foundations, and the societies and institutes of educational research come in this category. In various ways, some of them quite incidental, but nevertheless valuable and stimulating, may we count upon the services of the Federal Office of Education and the national and state education associations, with their departments, their programs, and their publications. Then too, there is such an organization as this: the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, projected in 1895 for the purpose of organizing southern schools and colleges for coöperation and mutual benefit, an objective which I am sure has been attained.

Sometimes, in associations of this kind we have given more thought to criticism and penalty than to helpful service. I think, however, that in all of our great standardizing and accrediting associations we are coming to realize that our excuse for existence, as something more than an executive office, must rest upon the constructive service we can offer to our constituent schools. A careful survey, analysis, and evaluation of the practices and programs of these institutions; a capitalization of its research agencies; and an acquaintance with and confidence in its individual leadership should form the background of this service and make it a valuable and intimate agency for the solution of at least some of our problems.

There are also plenty of agencies which are perfectly willing to help us out of our difficulties—or out of our misery—but which are not so carefully and intelligently organized in the interest of education.

There is, first, that portion of the great American public which pays its taxes directly and has been, naturally, rather increasingly self-conscious about it during the past few years. We cannot deny that this agency has been perfectly willing to help the schools and to serve their needs, although its ideas of service are not entirely congruent with ours. It asks such pointed questions:

"Isn't it possible to do this job of education more economically?"

"Why is it necessary to spend so much time on this or that?"

"Why do you have so many old and highly paid teachers and instructors?"

"Why such expensive buildings?"

And it finds such embarrassing weaknesses upon which it proceeds to generalize!

"High school graduates can neither spell correctly, figure accurately, nor speak grammatically."

"College graduates won't work."

"All you learn in high school or college, you could put in your eye."

And an individual one that came to me a week or two ago in my own system: "Miss Jones takes down her hair and does it up before the class."

Yes, the great American public is interested in the problems and needs of schools and colleges and might be asked to put the weight of its collective and corporate mind upon their solution.

Then there are business corporations, such as insurance companies, tire companies, milk companies, automobile manufacturing companies, and banks (through the American Institute of Banking) who have a very vital interest in the curriculum and a firmly grounded faith in the educational efficacy of written composition, declamation, debate, and prizes and rewards all the way from honorable mention to college tuition or world tours. And in similar guise, the various patriotic organizations and character building agencies would teach patriotism or develop character by the same methods.

Over against these agencies, which are organized with the specific objective of service in the cause of education, or which are organized with some other objective but which incidentally touch, possibly only tangentially, the orbit of school and college activities, are the agencies within the institutions themselves for reproduction, growth, and repair.

Is it desirable, in the face of such strange, and even startling, conditions as characterize this age of power and speed, to confess our absolute inability to cope with them and, therefore, to turn over to these outside agencies the function of reorganization of educational media and of education itself? Must the service which meets our needs and solves our problems come from without the body of our system? The answer to these questions cannot be given hastily or thoughtlessly, nor because we feel that it would be suicide to do otherwise, can we say with confidence and conviction that, of course, the service must originate in the school and not in the surrounding areas.

It might be well to canvass somewhat critically the facilities within the school which might be utilized in the event that certain specific services become necessary. These facilities consist of physical equipment, of scientifically accumulated data, of carefully allocated appropriations, of time, and of personnel; and by personnel I mean specifically personal interest, personal ability or capacity, personal strength, and personal adaptation to the function of leadership or to the functions of coöperation and followership.

If any one institution, college, or secondary school could assemble under

its roof all of these facilities perfected to the nth degree, it is obvious that that institution would be able to solve its immediate problems, decide upon its policies, launch upon worth while investigations and experimentations, and lay plans for future expansion. *It could unequivocally best serve its own needs.* It could answer, to its own satisfaction at least, the questions which are perplexing less favored institutions and are keeping them in a state of anxiety and despair.

It does seem rather obvious, does it not, that the profession which has for to many years been engaged in the business of education, and the buildings which have been so carefully planned to meet the needs of educational procedures, and the educational data that have been so carefully and painstakingly brought together through the years ought to furnish the best medium for the solution of new educational problems? It seems to me that it is not only the responsibility of the secondary school and the college to initiate the solution of their own problems, but it is an opportunity which they cannot afford to pass by. However meager may be their facilities and however limited their resources, they should, nevertheless, endeavor to face the task, reserve the right to diagnose and define the emergencies that confront them and, first, through conference and association with other institutions of their own class and rank and kind, second, through such organizations as *this* and through state and national education associations, third, through the various councils and foundations built up for educational service, find the help they need to meet and overcome these emergencies.

There is a corollary attached to this responsibility and this opportunity. The educational institution of these ranks that does not find out in these times whether there is not something the matter with it, if it would solve these problems, is not performing its full educational function. This is not the time for complacent self-satisfaction. There is too much speed and change and power in the movements of civilization today for us to keep pace by an occasional new paint job.

To enumerate and particularize: if the immediate problem which is facing you is one of numbers, it is not a matter of foregone conclusions and self-evident facts that you must immediately and permanently enlarge your plant and personnel on a pro-rated scale. It is important that you know that at least for the nation at large and for metropolitan areas at least, where this growth has been most pronounced and most critical, there is coming an equally pronounced and critical sag in the next six years. An annual decrease of from 2,000 to 2,500 pupils of elementary school age for every million of population has prevailed for the past six years, moving steadily in grade and age from year to year. This decrease which now totals 12,000 to 15,000 children for every million of population encroaches upon the junior high school this year and will affect the population of the senior high school in two or three years more, and there is no conclusive evidence that the

decline in national birth rate which has caused this sag has ended or that it will end soon—or ever.

If then we *build* for the present or *accommodate* for the present, it must be with an eye to this future contingency. The utilization of plants and personnel in a certain way today may mean an entirely new utilization seven or eight years hence. Is it not altogether possible that the facilities we develop now to take care of sheer numbers of rather regular enrollment may be essential to take care of new types of educational service for new types of matriculants then? If so, that factor should be taken into account when these facilities are planned and constructed. If you have decided, by careful study, research, and reasoning, that it is not your responsibility to provide a new type of service for a new type and age and condition of pupils and students when and if plans for their educations have been laid, then the bigger buildings and longer pay rolls that you may be thinking of now should be delayed and emergency accommodations provided to take care of the situation.

I have a feeling, however, as I have intimated before, that there rests upon high schools and colleges the obligation to do some planning for this new type of education and not let C.C.C. camps and other federal projects, or private enterprise, carry the burden or the philosophy which will solve the education problem for the idle and the unschooled, whose adolescent and post adolescent careers we somehow missed or fumbled when we should have caught and held them.

The schools that are projecting trade and vocational schooling, part-time schooling, continuation schooling, or two years of schooling beyond the twelfth grade, which are *distinctly not* junior college years, are at least sensing the critical character of the situation, however inadequate they may have been in meeting it. And the colleges that have established general, diagnostic, orientating departments or have inaugurated, frankly and openly, adult education projects, on and off the campus, have also felt the urge or the pull to do something more, if not better, in an attempt to educate all the people.

Colleges which have merely modified their entrance requirements so that effort, endurance, and courage are large factors in the admission of students have not *always* so modified the interior structure of their institutions that the *easily admitted* students find themselves welcome or comfortable. If the freshmen of today are to find the same furniture, and the same pictures on the wall, and the same carpets that I found when I entered college, they should go through exactly the same ritual that I went through when I entered. But if the ritual is to be modified, then there should be some change in the furnishings. At all events, this is a second chance that schools and colleges have to solve their own problem and minister to their own needs.

And again, if it is a matter of curriculum, it is the business of each educa-

tional institution to find out what materials, what fields, what groupings, what adaptations will best serve the needs of its constituency. We cannot standardize the materials of instruction because we cannot stabilize the movements and processes of civilization. Not only does the world move, but it moves forward with speed and power.

The school man or woman who would make his service count in the life histories of the young people whom it is his privilege to serve cannot successfully rely upon the traditional stores of knowledge, but must have, in addition to the sureness of footing which this traditional lore will give him, the heart and soul of adventure that alone will make his pupils follow him and respect him and, in years to come, be grateful to him.

Few schools have in themselves the resources to revolutionize completely their curricula. But no school can afford to be *content* with the stereotyped offering which it perforce must make. Through further well selected and well programmed study and through active participation in the studies and discussion of professional groups, every teacher *must* keep alive to the issues and developments of the day. Now you know very well that every teacher will not *do* this, perhaps *cannot* do this. Ladies and gentlemen who are leading the educational forces of the South, this is the most serious problem in the whole situation: that there have been caught in the treadmill of system thousands of willing workers who cannot get off of the machine but who only by laborious and painful effort can keep moving with it. It only means that educational authorities or, better, educational leaders must see to it that the strong, alert, the progressive, the far-seeing must be so distributed that their strength will be felt everywhere along the line. Secondary schools, in this problem of curriculum, you can demand the service of a type of educational research which is rapidly growing in effectiveness, in acumen: the educational research of your colleges of education, aided and abetted by such projects as the "coöperative study of secondary school standards."

And, above all, in the matter of methodology, it seems to me that it is the God-given privilege of every classroom teacher to enjoy academic freedom—but it is not the God-given privilege of anyone, teacher or layman, to think he knows it all. Reduced to its lowest term, which is probably an absurdity, every learning personality with which a teacher comes in contact has differing surfaces and differing reactions and theoretically the teacher should vary his attack or his approach or his lure according to the varying character of each personality as he sees it and diagnoses it. And the skillful, effective teacher does this very casually, very naturally, so that it appears he is teaching *en masse*, while, as a matter of fact, he is drawing more tightly here, letting out a little there, urging, forcing, coaxing, helping, teaching, and influencing everywhere.

My picture has shown or has predicted entirely new personalities and

entirely new areas of learning. Will these same teachers be able to carry on in the same efficient way when these new conditions confront them? Surely many of them will, and, just as surely, each school or each closely associated group or system of schools must, itself, initiate the movement which will help to meet the new emergency.

It is obvious, I am sure that you will see, that I have a tremendous faith in the profession of school men and school women to take the *lead* in the solution of their own problems and the servicing of their own needs. I don't believe that there is any agency organized for specific educational service, organized for some other specific service, or not organized at all which can see and understand sympathetically every phase of the problems of a college or secondary school as well as those who do the daily work of that institution.

But, having diagnosed their needs and canvassed their own facilities for their service, there is scarcely a school or a college in the South, or North, or East, or West (the Golden Gate to the contrary notwithstanding), that can afford not to take advantage of every progressive, sane, scholarly movement that has pioneered or is adventuring in the field of educational emergencies.

The problems are yours, fellow school men; you must define them, diagnose them, organize them, and rather arbitrarily determine them, and then, and then only, seek diligently for the service which will solve them. And you cannot wholly ignore milk, safety, patriotism, and Fisher bodies. But, please, for the honor of the progress of educational effort and for your own self-respect, incorporate them somehow into the work *you* are doing, make them a part of *your* program, and don't set aside a day or an hour for *them* that does not also belong to you.

The third thinly veiled implication of the topic is carried in the word "both," suggesting that effective servicing of the college and the secondary school should be applied to both of them together; that they are merely consecutive parts of an educational whole; that they are unified in ultimate objective; and that the terminals of one must be made to fit the initials of the other.

I think I have made it rather plain that I am not wholly in accord with this point of view. If it is true that each educational institution is obligated to discover and diagnose its own problems, and at least *define* the scope of remedial and developmental processes, then it is obvious that, except in limited and restricted areas, the secondary school, in its standards and purposes, may vary materially from the standards and purposes set up by the college, which still thinks largely in terms of prerequisites for matriculation. I do not know what your figures are in Virginia and in other parts of the South, but in my own city only thirty per cent of the graduates of our high schools ever enter college or university. Lack of specific preparation, lack

of interest, or lack of one or more of the various factors of opportunity keep seventy per cent of these *graduates* from matriculation.

Of course, there are also thousands of young people who enter our senior secondary schools and stay a year or two, or even three, without graduation, who cannot, for one reason or another, remain any longer or who find in either the lure or the real opportunities of the life outside an attraction which they cannot resist. For these, as long as they *do* remain, the secondary school must make some provision, hardly in anticipation of a college career.

And then, too, the education of the idle, the misfitted, the unskilled in, as yet, uncharted fields and by, as yet, undeveloped plans and methods is a problem peculiar to the level of instruction belonging to their age *and* mental equipment.

If, however, we are to plead for the autonomy of the secondary school, we cannot forget that there is a responsibility, possibly secondary in nature, resting upon the college, and particularly the university, to participate in an analysis of these problems of the secondary schools. The secondary school ought to feel free to come to the university with its problems and to ask that the university employ at least a part of its research resources and facilities in a *disinterested* attempt to solve them as they apply to boys and girls who will not become university students but who, upon the secondary level, are entitled to that service which is best adapted to their needs and their conditions. Some universities *might* find it rather difficult to approach these problems from this angle, but I know that many more are ready and willing to do that very thing. They are distinctly interested in an educational program that may begin at any point in the life of an individual and terminate at any later point; interested that, in the interim, that individual will have had a profitable experience.

This very organization, The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, several years ago discarded its initial designation, which was The Southern Association of Colleges and *Preparatory* Schools. This act implied not only a *recognition* of the fact that secondary schools had other functions than preparation for college but also an *obligation* to be of service to those high schools which in no large degree sent their graduates on to higher institutions.

In the college year 1894-1895, a former president of the University of Minnesota, Dr. William Watts Folwell, at that time Professor of Political Science and Political Economy, preached to us, who were in his classes, the doctrine of the six-year high school for American institutions, arguing that the subject matter, the methods, and the philosophy of the freshman and sophomore years of college were of the same type as the subject matter, the methods, and the philosophy of the (then) four years of the high school (Of course, it was more than 350 years before that time that Johann Sturm proposed that organization of the schools of Strassburg, with a curriculum

that was wholly classic.) The very nature of Dr. Folwell's thesis implied that in his mind the curricular content and the learning atmosphere of these two added years would reproduce quite definitely the curricular content and the learning atmosphere of what is now known as the junior college.

Later developments in the articulation of colleges and secondary schools have resulted, in many centers, in this particular adaptation; and such secondary schools as have extended their educational program beyond the twelfth year have proudly proclaimed that that extension was in name and in fact a *junior college*. If wisely planned, adequately staffed, and not too great a luxury for the resources of a given community, these junior colleges have solved many a serious problem for the boys and girls who cannot afford to attend a remote college or university for more than two years, if at all. In their planning there obviously must be a very complete coordination of the thinking of both college and secondary school.

But, to get back to the so-called youth movement, which does seem to haunt us rather persistently these days, it seems to me that, in addition to all the work which they do now and don't have time to do adequately, the secondary schools of America will in a very few years find themselves obligated to build a very different kind of extension to their educational program, an extension which will think very little in terms of the objectives of the college but will think very much in terms of the adaptable knowledge and skill of the boy or girl who finished a three or four year curriculum and still has some shortages to overcome when he faces the problems of competition in occupational distribution. For this type of program, it *may* be possible to utilize these rooms we are going to build now and are going to find vacant in a very few years; but I am inclined to think that we may *have* to move into the fields, onto the highways and rivers, and possibly into the forests and mines for the classrooms of this program.

I am dreaming and exaggerating, ladies and gentlemen, to say nothing of plagiarizing; but yet some small part of this extension program must find expression in the planning of secondary schools everywhere. There comes into my mind some doubt as to the adequacy of preparation and the breadth of experience of secondary school staffs to do this planning, and, quite obviously, there are many centers where my doubts are well founded. It is indeed unfortunate if many of *those* centers have the most urgent need for the extension program.

We all know, however, that during the past decade there has been a steady raising of the educational preparation of secondary school people—a circumstance in which this association has played no small part. If, in addition to "level," the "character" of that advanced education has been satisfactory, then there is a definite promise that secondary schools may solve more and more of their own problems, plan more and more of their extensions and expansions, and minister to more and more of *their own needs*.

There can be no question, I think, as to the autonomy of the college or university in determining the philosophy of its program. As it senses the progress of a changing civilization to which it must contribute in thought and in leadership, it will perforce, yet enthusiastically, modify and adapt the character of its curriculum and the processes of its service. It has for eighteen years found that it can, rather successfully, educate a new type of student, a student who at that particular time, eighteen years ago, substituted a picturesque and a tragic experience for a set of drab and simple entrance requirements. Since its experiment with returning youth, it has awakened to the possibility of new types of preparation, of new responsibilities for guidance, and of new fields of service. The changing of entrance requirements, the establishment of the general college, and the inauguration of adult education projects are evidences of this awakening.

The college trained high school teachers and administrators before it fully understood the minutiae of high school problems. But there has been marked progress in this field. There has been a growing confidence among college people in the opinions and judgments of well trained high school people, as the activities, experiences, and needs of the secondary school have impressed themselves upon the consciousness of the college; and, by the same token, there has been a growing respect among high school people for the opinions and judgments of sympathetic college people. The net result cannot help but be an improved and more adequately effective educational opportunity for the generation of learners.

In these dynamic times, both colleges and secondary schools have new and urgent problems, vital and critical needs. While, in many respects, these needs may be similar and may grow out of identical conditions, they may not be common in character and scope. The secondary school and the college, each in its own field and area of service, must strive for self-sufficiency in the discovery, the diagnosis, and the definition of its needs and bring to bear upon the solution of its problems, first, its own facilities and its own resources. At the same time, it should canvass the character of the service that is available in the offerings of other agencies and select those which seem best suited to its needs.

And finally, there is not necessarily, or even probably, for every individual an educational life history that runs in a straight line from the kindergarten to and through the university, but there is for every such individual an educational life history that runs from the cradle to the grave. It is the span of human life and not the prescription of institutions that determines the processes of education. Our most effective service in these days of change and speed and power is in finding to how large an extent we may fit into this pattern of human life.

An Educational Philosophy for a Dynamic Age*

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I sometimes think that the most copious and most sharply barbed satire of our present literary era comes from the pen of the critics of education. In spite of the fact that many of them are workers in the field of education, their contributions are frequently more noteworthy for literary effectiveness than for scientific appraisal of all the factors in the situation.

Even though we are stung at times by the severity of our critics, we cannot ignore the disparity between our educational efforts and our educational results. Widespread folly in the use of leisure indicates the ineffectiveness of our efforts at cultural education. Science tends to become, for its devotees, an end in itself, and not an instrument of social progress. Technical education provides all too often new agents for the forces of exploitation. Recent history certainly gives abundant evidence of the inadequacy of our social-civic education.

Accepting these facts as proof of the necessity for change at least in our emphases in education, I am pleased with the wording our president has given the central theme of his program. To discuss education in the dynamic age requires no prediction of a new social order. Social change is not only certain, it is in process at what seems to us at least a wholly unprecedented rate. This is a dynamic age. The current social order and the tempo of change always impose peculiar demands on education. But it remains fundamental in my thinking that education cannot assume to dictate a new order or to predict that for which it must prepare without a divine authority or an infallibility of which I discover no evidence.

Many of the needed changes in emphasis in education are chiefly matters of educational practice. They have long been included with more or less of clarity and insistence in our educational philosophy. That there is justification for further discussion of them results from the great lag between our educational science and philosophy and our educational practice, a lag explained in part by professional and social inertia, in part by our constant tendency to confuse *means* and *ends*, and in part by inherent conflicts in the ends themselves.

Yet the frequency with which our educational ills have recently been diagnosed as "confusion" suggests that their understanding and remedy can be achieved only by proceeding from the fundamental assumptions underlying education in America. All that I shall say is based on one or both of two such axioms, themselves interweaving. First, the essential

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business of education is the recognition, development, and ennobling of personality. The supremely desired resultant of the individual's development, in which it is the function of education to aid, is a healthy, wholesome, well adjusted personality.

The second of these assumptions is that education as we in America conceive it and democracy are inseparable corollaries. The relationship goes deeper even than the fact that popular education is a prerequisite to competent self-government. Democracy is in essence the recognition of individual personality as the supreme of human values. Education is the effort to enable the individual to realize his personality. The relationship has often been pointed out—the more democracy the more education; the more education the more democracy.

EDUCATING FOR PERSONALITY

The recognition of the first of these fundamentals affords little guidance unless we can discover some at least of the characteristics of a healthy, wholesome, well adjusted personality. Most of us profess little understanding of the secrets of personality. We recognize it, evaluate it, describe it, but claim to know little of its factors and development. In our every day use of the term, we seem to mean the sum total of one's effect on others. In a deeper meaning, the essence of personality seems to be choice, volition, purpose.

The *crux* of personality adjustment seems to be the balance between conformity and self-expression or self-assertion. Society owes incalculable debts to some great "rebels," but in general the temperamental rebel cannot be thought of as either a healthy or a wholesome personality. Always waging a losing fight over inconsequential issues against overwhelming odds, he spends his days nursing wounds of the spirit, becomes more and more an introvert, and arouses continuing hostility from his fellows. The list of things, in which conformity to society's established ways of doing, is necessary, is all but infinite—manners, emotional reactions, language, number, conventional information, etc., to name but a few. The traditional school sought to train in conformity in a few of these matters—especially the three R's—and has brought down on itself the wrath of the educational radical from Rousseau until today.

On the assumption—still apparently valid—that we can best train in social conformity by giving the youth a truly social environment in which to live and work and play, we have sought to "socialize" the school. Often, however, this "socialization" is so artificial and spurious as to defeat its own ends. Yet without such socialization, we find ourselves teaching pupils to write who have neither anything nor any impulse to write, to translate laboriously a foreign language by methods analogous to a cross word puzzle with no comprehension that the language studied is an instrument of thought

and speech for a living culture. We find them living out of class lives that are abundantly but not always happily educative and submitting to the class period with a good deal of guile and diplomacy as a hiatus in real life.

Yet it is charged that we have been even less successful in developing the counterbalancing factor—self-expression. At the turn of the century those teachers who claimed to be progressive welcomed the camel of “extra-curricular activities” as he thrust his nose into the educational tent, in the belief that here was what they needed to make school life afford the student opportunity for purpose, leadership, loyalty, and self-expression. They were right, but the resulting adjournment of classes for yell practice and post-victory holidays seem not exactly the desideratum.

Please do not conclude that I do not appreciate the educative influence of extra-curricular activities. In my opinion, it is indispensable. But if I may venture to abridge some paragraphs from President Conant’s address at the recent Harvard Tercentenary, let me cite it as for me an acceptable creed. Speaking on the university tradition in America, he said that the strength of an institution is derived from the flow of four streams of force: love of learning, or research; general education; vocational education; and student life. And, he added, the health of the institution depends on the balance among these forces.

A little later there came into the elementary school and in vocational education the “project method,” and again we had high hopes that we had found a plan by which the student might be trained in evaluating, forming, and carrying out purposes. Let it be freely admitted that few of our million American teachers ever gave the method a trial, and fewer still ever did so with an appreciation of its essentials. But apparently they have passed on in their quest, as witness the present vogue of the “activity curriculum.”

In higher education we are experimenting with many variants—honors courses, or this, that, or the other “plan” of local label, all ultimately dependent on the effectiveness of the comprehensive examination for general acceptability. But there must be far wider and more wholehearted adoption of these plans before we can conclude that sufficient emphasis is being given to the student’s purposes in their education. Because I believe that the measure of the man is his purposes—their worth, their persistence, and the skill and intelligence with which he puts them into execution—I believe that vital, effective experience in purposeful activity must become increasingly a point of emphasis in education. Until then we have scant justification for any claim that we are directing our efforts toward the supreme objective in education.

EDUCATING FOR HEALTH

The recognition of our first fundamental also brings into new light a neglected function of health education. We must concern ourselves with this more greatly, not only because life is increasingly taxing on physical

and mental resources, but because physical and mental health, interwoven so intricately no analysis can distinguish them, are tremendous factors in the resultant we seek, an effective personality. Health habits, health knowledge, even health standards as goals of the individual's effort may seem unromantic objectives in education, but in our elementary and secondary schools at least they must be built as conscientiously as the foundations of any ambitious structure.

Yet in an educational program that is governed by concern for human personality health education has even broader scope and in it higher education has definite part. More and more the work of the world becomes mechanized. The machine that lightens physical burdens becomes an added tax on the nerves. Drudgery, in the sense of labor not directly related to one's own purposes, increases. How can education aid in developing defense resources?

You will, I am sure, anticipate part of my answer—recreation. While the workday comes to mean more nerve strain and drudgery, there is fortunately promise of shorter work hours, of more leisure. One is an optimist indeed who can shut his eyes to the fact that present day adult uses of leisure are alarming. Because we are closer to them, we as teachers feel perhaps even more alarmed at the leisure time behavior of high school and college youth. It is rare indeed that adult or adolescent makes his leisure a sane and re-creating supplement to his work day.

Corrective effort is well worth emphasis, even at financial costs we have not contemplated. To develop interest and skill in physical sports that will carry over into adult life, to promote interests and hobbies, especially those that lead to outdoor activity, so to adapt the individual to the demands of his fellows that he will respond happily to the stimulus of group activity in his recreation, these are the most obvious correctives.

Yet I am not sure that we appreciate how fully that which is truly recreative, restorative after the fatigues of present day labor, must be self-expression, the fulfillment of one's own purposes, creative activity. We are concerned not only with mental health, but with healthful personality. True recreation must give a sense of personal accomplishment.

Yet another part of my answer seems more fundamental—the basis even of effective recreation. Please let me use for it a word many of us have abandoned because we have been unwilling to accept some of its faulty connotations, the word "culture." By it I mean the ready and full response to the stimuli that come to us from nature and life about us. Whatever will give to us meanings to attach to a maximum number of these stimuli, and will enable us to make right intellectual and emotional responses to them, I consider a truly "cultural" subject. Perhaps it will be music or art or architecture or history or literature or philosophy—none of them, I am sure, in the abstract, but as related to life—but it may equally well be biology or the

physical sciences or geology or economics or government. Wherever a new meaning is found, a new interest is likely to grow, and the richness of our life is proportionate to the number and vigor of our interests.

There is no more curious example of popular fallacy than the idea that culture is associated with weakness. True culture is strength, a resource against fatigue, against the clamorous demands of our fellows, and against the encroachments of age.

NEW EMPHASES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Our assumption that education is primarily concerned with the enrichment of the individual personality seems to me to point to needed changes in common conceptions concerning vocational education.

A part of our defense against the dangers that threaten the health of the personality must be a vocational training that will make not only skillful but intelligent workers. There is an alchemy that transforms drudgery—it is a consciousness of social service, voluntarily rendered because worthy of part of our life. Somewhere in the training that imparts the science and the skills peculiar to a vocation, there must be given some conception of the end result and its values, some knowledge of the long, long history of the trade, and some art impulse to make the product better and more beautiful than mere utility demands.

Closely related is the need for a technical education more largely imbued with social consciousness. Engineering efficiency not guided by considerations of social worth seems to me comparable with skilled surgery not greatly concerned with human health. Perhaps our imaginations have been unduly stimulated by the concept of "technocracy," but beyond doubt the availability of technically trained agents, educated at the expense of society, often of the taxpayer, has increased the power of some of our economic autocracies.

I am convinced that we have erred in our insistence on the separateness of the cultural and the vocational in education. After all, the man must be the worker, and the worker will be the man. Culture and vocational efficiency will be fused in the single personality. Neither can be genuine if it is some extraneous addition. Neither culture or utility inheres in our subject matter *per se*. Each becomes an actuality only in the character and behavior of the personality we develop.

There can be no period of education wholly unrelated either to vocation or culture, nor perhaps any single teacher wholly without responsibility for either of them.

TRUE LEARNING

Our assumption makes evident another necessity—emphasis on true learning, learning that affects "ways of living." Today we think of such learning as "integrated," that is, as having become woven into the student's pattern of

responses. Teachers little affected by our pedagogical lingo speak of learning as "organized" or "unorganized." Some decades ago a term borrowed from physiology was current—"assimilated." The conception is not new. But it has all too little influence on our practice. More and more we are learning that the part of our past experience which functions in our present personality is that which was genuinely a part of our life, that which involved the whole of us—intellect, emotion, volition, activity. The art of teaching is in creating situations in which such experiences may be had.

We realize today that such situations are all but impossible when we present to the student the highly abstract, definitely compartmentized "subjects," into which mature and scholarly minds analyze human learning. Hence the effort to "integrate" our offerings into larger patterns. It is a device worthy of our optimism, but only if we keep in mind the fact that the personality of the student is the real integrating force. The learner must be actively experiencing—not maintaining in the classroom some collateral make-believe, like the patter of the magician, as a screen behind which his real living goes on. Bode attributes many of the startling incoherencies in our social thinking to "compartmentized learning," so unreal that we do not recognize the conflicts in what we think we know.

EMPHASIS ON THE INTELLECTUAL

Yet in this effort for integrated learning we sometimes fall into another grave error—failure to emphasize the intellectual in education. Perhaps it is a result of the school's effort to apply new concepts of psychology, perhaps it comes from a misconception of democracy, but there is today in this land of ours a distressing distrust of and even contempt for intelligence. Our current literature all implies that, to achieve happiness, one must abandon reason and embrace impulse. Current religion revolts against all creedal content of an intellectual sort. A large proportion of our workers in education have come to hold in contempt the traditional "subjects," although these "subjects" are the summation of the cumulative efforts through the generations of the greatest intellects of the race. No wonder someone has recently listed "a social heritage of wilful immaturity" as one of the causes of lack of success in college.

It would seem that the situation is more acute in America than in some of our sister nations. It has been pointed out that Great Britain, through her superior system of civil service, employs high intelligence and training advantageously in governmental service, and can undertake through her government social services we dare not assume because of the debauching influence of "politics." President Hoover resorted to "commissions" and President Roosevelt to the "brain trust" as devices by which to use outstanding intelligences in public service, and public ridicule and political hostility have been the most conspicuous results. American education must find a way to

engender appreciation of the methods as well as the results of intelligence.

President Hutchins has recently said that the remedy for the "intellectual anarchy" which in his opinion characterizes our secondary and higher education will be consistent effort for the "intellectual virtues" of the ancients through agreement on the use of what he terms the "permanent subjects" as the material of general education. To some of us his prescription seems unnecessarily reactionary, while we agree with his diagnosis and his description of the desired state of health. We cannot, however, too much insist that there is scant place for any would-be educational activity that does not seek to secure good, honest thinking or for any methodology that is not based on what we know of the characteristics of effective thought.

The outlook for our social well being is dark, indeed, it seems to me, unless our distrust of intelligence as applied to social problems can be lessened. The old avenues of escape from these problems in America are gone. We must find solutions. It is a question whether these solutions are delayed more by half-baked pronouncements of some "social scientists" or by the "pooh-poohing" of all efforts to apply scientific method to social problems so characteristic of workers in natural science fields.

EDUCATION AND THE SOCIAL ORDER

What I have said may seem evasive to such of you as have honored me with your attention. So many of our basic social creeds and institutions must be re-examined in the light of recent crises in our social order that to some of us it seems that the needed emphases in education—perhaps its complete re-direction—must be found in these facts.

On every hand we note phenomena hard to reconcile with a successful program of popular education in the principles of democracy—the popular response to the voice of demagogues, widespread failure to understand or accept basic economic law, the tendency to abandon the principle of progress by free opinion and discussion, the fetish of a sacrosanct and immutable constitution maintained by the entrenched classes, the avowed willingness of proponents of change to disregard the constitution, the appalling readiness of thousands to prefer the dole to unemployment and of organized groups to raid the public treasury, the apparent dire necessity of choice between regimentation by bureaucracy and regimentation and exploitation by big business.

Yet, in spite of our inevitable discouragement, it seems to me that the soundest course for education lies not in the advocacy of this or that specific remedy for social ills, not in "preparation" of the oncoming generation for a particular type of social organization we assume to be inevitable, but in the faithful recognition of the primary functions of education—to aid the individual to develop a healthy, wholesome, well adjusted personality and to

make education, in practice as well as in historical origin, an aspect of democracy.

Why then has education, conducted on a scale never elsewhere attempted, failed to result in a more satisfactory expression of democracy in the United States, a land where government is founded on and dedicated to democracy? Chiefly, I should say, because education has so often repudiated its kinship with democracy to become the foster child of "success." The emphasis in American education has not been democracy but the doctrine of "getting ahead." We have proclaimed the values of education in terms of increased earnings and greater social prestige—rarely in terms of richer life through a more vital personality. In the second place, because all our civic and social teaching has been made largely artificial and ineffective by the alleged necessity of keeping the controversial out of the classrooms. We cannot accomplish true learning if we cannot deal with real situations.

The battle for academic freedom continues, but education must assume its share of blame that victory is not in sight. Not only are many who invoke academic freedom blatant seekers after publicity to whom no truth is important that is not sensational; but it is not to the credit of our educational program that after these decades, *truth* means so little to our public that practically every segment of our society seeks to suppress the seeker after truth as soon as he turns his search light in its direction.

In a very real degree the unwillingness of the true teacher to become a propagandist has hampered our education for citizenship. That unwillingness is in every way commendable. Often it has been courageous—for often there is pressure from powerful sources to make our classrooms agencies for propaganda. To yield would be to stultify our profession, to deal unfairly with the society we serve, and to perpetrate an injustice on the students.

The practices, political, economic, or social, that best contribute to the realization of democracy may quite conceivably differ from age to age, even from section to section. But so long as they are democratic, they must be such as respect the individual personality as the supreme of human values, such as together constitute a social order designed to secure the welfare of all, and that contribute to the orderly shaping of such a social order through free opinion and discussion.

It is not, I submit, propaganda when education becomes the faithful exponent of democracy, presents its ideals, its aspirations, its pitfalls, and promotes evaluation of the agencies of every sort for its accomplishment. From the point of view of an education that sets itself wholeheartedly to ennobling the human spirit, capitalism or communism, centralized or decentralized government, world trade or national economy, new deal or old deal, can none of them be judged except under the white light of democratic principle.

Educational objectives, procedures, programs, and institutions are all but infinite in number and confusing in variety. The demands of the time are clamorous and in some ways alarming. The differing purposes, interests and abilities of our students add to the complexity of our task. Yet it seems to me there is guidance out of our confusion in fundamental educational philosophy, by which we may judge educational values and put first things first.

Surely democracy is not dependent on the accident of free lands on the frontier. I for one will not agree that democracy is "sterile," that the American dream is a mirage, if only democracy may function in alliance with a system of universal education that recognizes its origin and is faithful to its real obligation. If education can give to the generations as they come the vision of democracy as a way of life, a belief in human intelligence, and the habit of thoughtful, responsible action, it need never attempt to impose on the citizens of the future what forms of government or economic systems they shall choose.

Education in a Dynamic Age*

By J. THOMAS DAVIS

President of John Tarleton Agricultural College

This is a moving world. There is no such thing as standing still. This age has caught the contagion of movement to the maximum degree. Movement, speed, power, and change are the chief characteristics of this age. The contagion of movement in the cities has spread to the towns and villages and even to the countrysides. The craze for action produces the motion pictures, the automobiles, airplanes, and other types of rapid, powerful machinery. Even our music "goes round and round."

Not only is ours a moving world, it is a changing world. Vegetation is either growing or decaying. Animal life is either developing or receding. We are constantly in the midst of life and in the midst of death. We are in the midst of growing life or we are in the midst of receding life. Botanists tell of plants that have become extinct. Discoveries have been made of the remains of completely extinct plants, such as: the lepidodendron, the sigillaria, the pteridosperm, flowering cycads.

Zoölogists have indicated very clearly that animal species pass out of existence, and discoveries have been made which show conclusively that many animal types have become extinct. Among these are the dinosaurs, the mammoth, the mastodon, the archeopteryx, and the pithecanthropus erectus. The buffalo and other animals are very rapidly becoming extinct and if left to themselves will soon be unknown on the earth.

Ethnologists have discovered that human races perish from the earth. They give us such examples as the Trinal Man, the Heidelberg Man, the Piltdown Man, the Neanderthal Man, and the Grimalde Man.

Not only is this a changing world from the standpoint of its physical nature and habitation, but civilizations are constantly changing, perishing, dying, reviving or being born anew. History furnishes abundant evidence of the fact that civilizations perish from the earth. I need but remind you of the Hebrew civilization, the Assyrian, the Egyptian, the Greek, the Roman, and the ancient civilization of India, so remote as to seem almost a myth. There are some interesting facts concerning this civilization of India, which are barely touched upon by our historians. A few years ago at Christmas my son gave me a most interesting book, "The Panchatantra," which reflects the ancient civilization of that country. This book contains what many call the best collection of stories in the world, a "textbook of the wise conduct of life." From it we learn that even in this remote civilization

* This is the presidential address delivered before the annual dinner meeting of the Southern Association, Thursday evening, December 3, 1936.

there was a dynamic stage, just as there was a dynamic stage in other civilizations. Over and over, emphasis is put on "the difficulty and the inestimable reward of sturdy action." These lines are representative of this note :

"A noble purpose to attain
Desiderates extended pain,
Asks man's full greatness, pluck, and care
And loved ones aiding with a prayer.
Yet if it climb to heart's desire,
What man of pride and fighting fire,
Of passion and of self-esteem
Can bear the unaccomplished dream?
His heart indignantly is bent
(Through its achievement) on content."

This far remote age set up the philosophy that "joy results from four occupations : possession and right use of wealth ; from resolute, yet circumspect use of the active powers ; from social intercourse with like-minded friends ; and, above all, from worthy exercise of the intelligence." Would not this philosophy compare favorably with that of our age? Does it not really offer a challenge to the educators of our day? And yet this dynamic civilization perished, as did those of other nations. Being so dynamic, and claiming such a philosophy, why did this civilization, and others, perish?

Plant life, animal life, races of men, civilizations have been preserved and propagated or else have disappeared from the earth because of inability to cope with their environment or failure to do so.

You are familiar with the marvelous accomplishments of Luther Burbank in restoring and propagating different species of plant life.

You need but look about you, especially in the field of agricultural colleges and experiment stations to realize wonderful restoration and improvement of animal life which might have become extinct. *How* this restoration and improvement instead of extinction? People took advantage of the science of breeding and developed the most beautiful and most serviceable forms and types that the world has ever known. In other words they made worthy use of their intelligence.

One of the most interesting demonstrations of scientific development and intensive application of human intelligence may be observed at our fairs and fat stock shows. One is awed when he goes into these arenas at the amazing scientific developments which have largely been reclamations and improvements of types of plants and animals that would have become extinct and were actually becoming extinct. This has been brought about by the application of science, by purposeful design, by the worthy use of human intelligence.

Just as there is need for ability to reclaim and improve in the plant and

animal world, there is urgent need for the preservation and perpetuation of those spiritual values and ideals which have brought our civilization thus far—the principles and ideals of government and of religion, of peace and good will to man.

Plutarch so truly said, "A city may as well be built in the air, as a commonwealth or kingdom be either constituted or preserved without the support of religion." Those things which abide and satisfy must be kept dominant. Was not John Dewey right when he said, "The future of religion is connected with the possibility of developing a faith in the possibilities of human experience and human relationships that will create a vital sense of the solidarity of human interests and inspire action to make that sense a reality." The desire and the purposeful design to conserve and perpetuate spiritual ideals call for a familiarity with both realism and idealism—a knowledge of conditions as they really are and a desire for them to be as they should be.

That form of government which has made our nation what it is, is called Democracy. Much is said today as to whether democracy has failed—whether a democracy is able to cope with the staggering problems which arise. I believe with Dr. Robert M. Hutchins that "Democracy has not failed; the intelligence of the race has failed before the problems the race has raised." How difficult have become the problems of the race as life has become more and more complex. In the earlier years men moved west as a solution to many of the problems which arose. Now, there is no more unoccupied west. Men must meet problems face to face; either to solve them and go on, or to be overcome by them and fall out. The level of intelligence of the people of a democracy must be in keeping with the difficulty of the problems if the problems are to be wisely solved. The tendency of civilization, without purposeful, intellectual guidance, is downward. Survival and progress are due to the efforts of exceptional individuals who overcome the backward tendency by a wise use of the intelligence. Rapid changes and the possibility of more rapid changes, together with countless inventions and discoveries, bring to the human race great hazards as well as great possibilities. Dangers lurk for the destruction of civilization. That which has been attained must be upheld and guarded and directed by intelligent and sane judgment.

During the Great War period, the slogan of the world, initiated and accelerated in our nation, was *efficiency*. Science became not a subject of idle curiosity to be read about, but something of great use and importance in every day affairs of the common citizen. During that period, science made greater strides in invention, discovery, and productivity than the human race had made throughout history. Efficiency asserted itself in invention, speed, production, communication, and even economy.

Our nation came to a time when it was blessed with a superabundance of everything and yet it was cursed with poverty due largely to unequal and

unfair distribution. There was more than enough for all, while the masses were suffering from poverty. In this mad rush for efficiency, power, change, speed, and increased desire, we became profligate and began a wasteful destruction of our natural resources, those endowments for the human race prepared through divine origin. The conservation of these natural resources which are so rapidly being depleted is now a national problem of great import. A profligate disregard for the conservation of material resources is powerful evidence of disregard for spiritual values. A civilization which gives no thought or care to permanent material blessings fails to recognize the importance of spiritual values. Spiritual values, as well as material resources, must be revived and conserved. At Berlin, Germany, on July 24, 1936, Col. Charles Lindberg said :

"When I see that within a day or two damage can be done which no time can ever replace, I begin to realize that we must look for a new type of security, a security which is dynamic, not static, a security which rests in intelligence, not in forts. It is our responsibility to make sure we don't destroy the very things which we wish to protect."

What does it profit a nation, even though it preserve and improve its plant life and its animal life, even though it make conditions conducive to the propagation of its races, though it conserve its natural resources, though it preserve its cherished forms of governments and religions, what does it profit, I ask, if a nation gain all these things and lose them in wars? War is a repeal of all the beauty, all the comforts, all the accomplishments, all the ideals, yea, well nigh all the faith which a nation has built up. Is it impossible to educate the world to the conviction, and to the courage of the conviction of the futility of war? Is experience the best teacher? The world needs that which will counteract the all-too-prevalent spirit of selfishness, avarice, greed. How long before the peoples of the world will bow their heads in shameful acknowledgment of the irreparable damage which has been wrought in wars, and raise them again proclaiming in glorious unison, "Peace on earth, good will to man."

The more dynamic the age and the more complex its life, the more dynamic and the more definite must be the process of education. The youth of the land must be inspired to have visions of social values and spiritual values as well as financial values. Social and spiritual impulses must be created and cultivated. Man must be developed to the end that he will not ask flippantly, "Am I my brother's keeper?" but will answer conscientiously and sanely the question, "Where is thy brother?"

Plants and lower animals are without conscious capacity for interpreting or forecasting conditions; only man possesses that power. Hence, the strategic importance of our educational program. What is Education?

Education is the production of *useful* changes in human beings, changes in knowledge, in skill, in ideals, in adaptation, and in reformation. The greatest handicaps to human progress and efficiency have been inability to enlarge the possibilities of learning; inability to extend human thought widely and enduringly; inability to forecast contingencies; inability to think accurately and rapidly; inability to interpret crises and determine correct values.

What can education do for a people? Can it overcome these handicaps to progress? What may we in educational effort hope to accomplish? Can the people expect that the results of our efforts will aid in bringing to them a freer and happier life, more secure from those anxieties which constantly threaten their social, spiritual, and economic security? If so, then our educational program must be liberalized, must be freed from prejudices, must be extended to include even phases not heretofore recognized by the Southern Association.

Our schools, colleges, and universities should be veritable storehouses of knowledge; they should create an atmosphere that breeds a passion for learning; they should make it possible for research to be carried on in many fields; in short they should magnify learning in every way possible; yet, learning should be so vital, so related to life that it will invest the learner with a spirit of adventure, a spirit of courage, a spirit of good will to man. When such conditions prevail, there should never be a doubt as to recognition by the Southern Association, whether the institution be liberal arts, technical, professional, or denominational.

Religious Education in a Dynamic Age*

By WILLIAM L. ADRIAN

Bishop of the Catholic Church, Nashville, Tennessee

I hardly think I could be classed as an educator, if this means much actual experience in teaching in college. But if it means one who is intensely interested in promoting education, yes, I am that; and especially have I been interested in secondary schools.

For a quarter of a century I taught in or supervised a high school. Also, I spent some time teaching one of those country schools in which you have eight grades with some thirty five- to ten-minute classes a day, besides supervising and singing and preparing programs, and building your own fires, and sweeping your own school room—all for the magnificent salary of twenty-five to thirty dollars a month, depending on the season.

And so, having been closely connected with schools from different angles practically all my life, I have quite definite notions of what results we have a right to expect from our schools, be they grade schools, secondary schools, or colleges or universities.

But, as to the methods being employed in these schools for attaining these results, of these I am not so sure, if we are to judge by the actual results obtained. Perhaps a "New Deal" would help here, even as our American people seem convinced, judging by the recent elections, it has helped in national affairs and in a civic and social way. And yet again, as the opponents of the New Deal contend, perhaps this is just what is wrong; there has been too much experimenting by "brain-trusters" in trying to adjust a program to fit this modern dynamic age; and a return to fundamentals, to the three R's—or even better, to the *four R's*—the ideal of our forefathers, is the thing that is needed most.

In the last decade or two we have been instructing, yes, surpassing all the nations of the world—but have we been really educating? Have we turned out from our schools men and women of sterling character and virtue, properly trained to appreciate the real values of life, and inspired to live up to those values? Have we produced men of real culture and worth, comparable, for instance, to those produced by the great schools of Europe of few centuries ago? *Science* has made marvelous strides in this twentieth century, yes, but in doing so, has it not, as Doctor Gladston of the New York Academy of Medicine said recently, "laid ruthless waste to the cultural and moral heritage of mankind, and left it spiritually bankrupt?" And hasn't it aggravated rather than solved present industrial and economic problems? Are we satisfied with the results? Frankly, I for one, am not.

* An address delivered before the annual dinner meeting of the Southern Association, Thursday evening, December 3.

The story is told of a young Irishman who came to one of our large American cities some years ago without any resources. He sought out a Catholic church, and repairing to the rectory, introduced himself to the priest, asked for a job. "Well, Michael," said the priest, "I have nothing to offer you right now, but next week my sexton is leaving and you can have the job. All you have to do is clean the church, mow the grass, and take up the collection. Do you think you can do that?" "O, yes," he said, "I think I can." "Well then," said the priest, "you get ten dollars and keep." "Fine," said the Irishman. But, just as he was going, the priest called, "O, yes, I nearly forgot; you receipt all the bills as they are paid—just write my name and below yours, 'per Michael Flaherty.'" Michael's face fell. "But I can't do that, Your Reverence. I can't read nor write." "What, you can't read nor write?" "No, Father. You see, I was the oldest in the family and I had to work from the time I was a wee bit of a lad and I never learned to write." "Well," said the priest, "if you can't write your own name, then I am afraid I can't use you." But he told Michael to go to a friend of his, the banker, who might find him a job. The banker liked Flaherty and got him a job. Flaherty made good from the start. In six months he had a small hay and feed establishment of his own. In three years he had four thousand dollars in the bank. One day he came into the bank and asked to borrow six thousand dollars. He wanted to buy a bigger place, he said. The banker liked Flaherty, as I said, and told him he would lend him the money. He congratulated him in his enterprise, saying, "Michael, you have been an inspiration to all of us. Why, three years ago you came here with nothing but your brains and hands, and here you are becoming a capitalist. Why, just think what you could have done if you had been educated and able to write!" "Yes," said Flaherty, "I know where I would be today if I had been able to write—I would be getting ten dollars a week and keep over at St. Patrick's Church."

That illustrates rather well the difference between educating and instructing. Michael Flaherty was not instructed, but he was educated. Don't our efforts at educating seem to indicate something of a like result? We are instructing, but are we educating? We use to say, "Fill our schools with children, and you close up the prisons of the nation," but criminal investigators now accuse our schools of contributing to the delinquency of our young people; that major crimes among the young, not yet of voting age, have increased one hundred per cent in the last generation—a terrible indictment, if true.

The other day a young man, who had just graduated from one of our tax-supported colleges, got up on a modern soapbox in New York and cried in a strident voice that there were plenty of churches in New York that could be burned, or would be, when the proletariat rose in its might, as it did in Spain; while an ardent follower was offering for sale tracts on Communism

to the listening crowd. A couple of months ago, a recent graduate of one of the biggest universities in my home state was tagged as "public enemy number one," and is serving a life sentence today for kidnapping. A few weeks ago, two boys and a girl, all under sixteen years of age, came down to Tennessee from Chicago, and staged their seventh robbery before the law overtook them. In New York as the penalty for robbery and murder, two lads of sixteen are awaiting the electric chair. Recently, a university graduate teaching in one of our largest public high schools in the South, told me, that if you appealed to the boys and girls of this school on the principle that "honesty is the best policy," they would laugh at you.

Just incidents, but they could be multiplied at will.

And then, the physical and mental wrecks resulting from license and drink and immorality! Do we assume no responsibility for these? God alone knows the number. A recent estimate in New York placed one-third of the total diseased in this category.

And after all, I think I am talking to men and women who believe in an immortal soul and future life. And what are we doing for our boys and girls toward promoting this supreme purpose in life? Haven't our schools a grave responsibility here?

Now I don't want to appear a cynic. I am naturally inclined to smile and look on the bright side of life. And yet, these thoughts do help to bring home to us our grave responsibility as educators, and cause us to ask ourselves seriously whether we are meeting the challenge of properly educating our modern boys and girls—fittingly called the most valuable single thing in all the world; and whether we are properly preparing them to cope with and master the great problems of life, and to know and attain their ultimate purpose in life.

At the birth of our American Constitution, the fathers had gathered in convention at Philadelphia. For weeks they had striven in vain to form a new government. In that dark moment, the venerable Franklin arose and addressed himself to Washington, "How has it happened, Sir," he said, "that we have not hitherto once thought of humbly applying ourselves to the Father of Lights to illuminate our understanding? . . . At the beginning of our contest with Great Britain, we daily had prayers in this room for Divine guidance. And have we now forgotten that powerful Friend, or do we imagine that we no longer need His powerful assistance? I have lived a long time, Sir, and the longer I live, the more convincing proofs I see of this truth—that God governs in the affairs of men. We have been assured, Sir, in the Sacred Writings, that 'Except the Lord build the house, they labor in vain, that build it.' I firmly believe this, and I also believe that without His concurring aid we shall succeed in this political building no better than the builders of Babel." And then he moved that prayers be said daily in that convention and it was so ordered.

I make bold to venture that, were Doctor Franklin to address this assembly tonight, he would urge this as the great need in our schools today, only more intensely so, because we have gotten farther away—to *bring* back that fourth “R”—bring Religion and God back into our schools. It certainly never dawned on the framers of our American Constitution that Religion should be banished from education. Away back there in His Majesty’s faithful colony of Massachusetts Bay, the chronicler tells us, the selectmen of the town of Sudbury deliberated for hours on their choice of a schoolmaster that could be trusted to give their children a good education, so necessary, as the General Court of 1642 enacted, “for the singular behoof and benefit of any commonwealth.” For them the school was the ordinary means of teaching religion. The school that did not teach religion was not “for the benefit and behoof of the commonwealth,” according to their thinking.

Such is the doctrine from which the American spirit in education is drawn ; such was the unanimous attitude of the early colonists and framers of the Constitution toward schools. The president of Harvard College was charged with the duty of promoting the religious welfare of the student just the same as was the master of the little colony school. In 1654 the General Court enacted that none might be employed in educating the youth in schools or colleges who “manifested an unsound faith or were scandalous in their lives, or not giving satisfaction according to the rules of Christ” ; for, they contended, “it greatly concerns the welfare of the country that the youth thereof be educated, not only in Literature, but in *sound doctrine*,” which to them meant religion. Such was the tenor of all those early colonies, and mind you, all but one were predominantly non-Catholic. The *school* for them meant the *church school*. There was not a man who sat in Congress, or came to that Federal Convention in Philadelphia, but was trained in a school that did *not exclude* religion from its curriculum, nor had any of them ever heard of such a non-religious school.

There is no fact clearer in history than that the Northwest Ordinance was intended to provide *religious* schools for the Northwest Territories. And George Washington, I am sure, spoke the mind of the nation when nine years later, in 1796, he so emphatically stated in his farewell address, “Reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principles.” And how spread and maintain morality and religion among the people? Washington answers, “Promote then as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of (religious) knowledge.”

Such, I repeat, was the original American spirit in education. The spirit which now has replaced it, to create the so-called “non-sectarian school,” is an importation principally from atheistic Germany.

Horace Mann, in his twelfth report as Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts, gives us the exact date at which this new philosophy began.

"It was not until the tenth day of March, 1827," he says, "that it was made unlawful to use the common schools of the state as a means of instructing children to the belief in the doctrines of particular sects." From that time on, the schools of the states have been leading our children to believe more and more that religion is of no particular importance in life, and that morality founded on religion hampers, rather than develops, the growth of character. And today, as Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler says, "So far as religious instruction is concerned . . . the principle has been so far departed from as to put the whole force and influence of the tax-supported schools on the side of *one* element of the population, namely, that which is pagan and believes in no religion whatsoever."

And that is precisely the vicious element of our modern system. Dr. Luther Weigle of Yale puts it thus: "Our schools convey to our children the suggestion that religion is without truth or value; they are fosterers of irreligion and atheism." Or, as Pope Pius XI puts it: "The neutral school from which religion is excluded . . . cannot exist in practice; it is bound to become irreligious."

And we have wandered far from the ideals of our forefathers when it has become criminal, because *unlawful*, to teach religion and morality in the state school, and it is lawful to foster irreligion, and even openly teach atheism and communism. I think no one questions the fact that this is being done. I personally know of such instances. In one state university, a certain professor has openly boasted that no student ever passes through his course, whose faith in God and religion is not badly shaken, if not completely shattered.

Things have indeed come to a strange pass. Here we are being warned on every hand to beware of the inroads of Communism with its doctrine of class hatred and subversion of our sacred traditions, and the overthrow of our democratic government, the destruction of our liberties, and the violation of the sanctity and happiness of our homes; and at the same time, by the fact that we make the teaching of religion in school a crime, we are promoting an irreligious atmosphere that must necessarily end in atheism—and atheism is the very first principle of Communism.

It seems so absurd that all real Americans, from President Roosevelt down, should maintain, even as the President stated at Vincennes, June 14, last, that "religion and morality are as necessary today as always for the peace and happiness of our people, and the prosperity and perpetuity of our nation"; that, as Doctor Kinley, President-Emeritus of the University of Illinois, recently said, "There can be no complete education without development of character, and there can be no development of character without religious training"; and then, that we should at the same time be spending billions of dollars annually to support atheistic schools that tend to aid the enemy of our liberties and destroy religious faith, while the religious school

which tries to keep alive the true American spirit of divine faith and to safeguard our American institutions, is being severely penalized and ignored.

What solution do I propose? I can see only one. Go back to the religious school as was the intent of the framers of our Constitution.

"I am sorry," Senator Copeland recently stated in Congress, "that the same system (he was referring to the Catholic school system) is not being used by all denominations; but generally speaking, the influence of the church over the individual child is confined to one hour a week." And he might have added, "this, when, and if, the child attends Sunday school."

And when we remember that over one-half of our American people have no practical church affiliation (is this perhaps the fruit of non-religious schools?), it isn't hard to see that the Sunday school class alone will never make our children religiously minded. Nor can I see that Bible reading in school—and even that is unlawful—is helping hardly at all, nor yet the study of religion as a mere academic subject.

Such methods do not inculcate the spirit of religion, do not vitalize religion, and any education that does not "get under the skin," that does not interpret religion and morality into practical every-day life, is not religious education nor sound education. You might know every rule in the book, know every play in the coach's repertoire, but that wouldn't make you a football player unless you put this knowledge into practice. A hungry man goes into a restaurant, sits down at a nicely-laid table, carefully studies the menu from top to bottom, and then gets up, blesses himself and walks out. Let him keep that up long enough, and he will starve to death. He is getting ever so much in his mind, but it isn't getting into his life. He must eat and digest that food if it is to become a part of his brain and tongue and muscle and bone. Well, it is just the same with religion, which is the food of the soul. Ever so many people know what this or that church teaches, know what they are expected to do, but they don't do it. If our children do not live their religion and morality when young, they will hardly learn to do so later.

Now, I am not advocating a return to state-supported religious schools, just because it would relieve those of us, who maintain our denominational religious schools, of heavy financial burden; and I am seriously interested in the education of all our children. I contend, *first*, that state-supported religious schools are in harmony with the intent of the framers of our American Constitution; *secondly*, that such a system harmonizes with our cherished American policy of separation of church and state; *thirdly*, that it is about as economical and far more just than our present system; *fourthly*, that they are the best practical solution, if not the only one, for bringing real practical religion and morality into the lives of our young generation; *fifthly*, that it is practical because it is being successfully done in Canada and most of the European countries, and in some localities in our United States.

If I am to judge from the number of parents who are sending their children to private schools, especially in the South, or by the number of non-Catholic children attending our Catholic schools, even with grave inconvenience and extra cost, I cannot but think that many of our serious-minded Americans do appreciate the need of religious schools.

I sincerely hope that soon, before it is too late, a sufficient number of our people will become so convinced of their need that they will take steps to procure legislation authorizing schools similar to those now operating in other Christian nations, and thus may be safeguarded our liberties, our nation, our homes, and precious immortal souls.

Technical Education in a Dynamic Age*

By EARLE B. NORRIS

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Technical education in America is the child of an earlier dynamic era—that era which saw implanted on American soil the first seeds of the industrial revolution. The early years of the nineteenth century were years of dynamic activity in which our people had set in motion those forces and movements which were to carve a great nation out of the resources of this continent.

Canal and railroad building as means of transportation and communication were quickly supplemented by the steamboat and the telegraph and by those early American inventions which freed our people from an economy of bare existence. The cotton gin and the harvesting machine multiplied many fold the products of the planter and the farmer and gave them exportable surpluses, as well as relief from back-breaking toil. The sewing machine gave similar relief to the housewife and later laid the foundation for our clothing industry. The steam engine gave added strength to the arms of the factory worker and, when hitched to the machinery created by the machine tool builders of New England, gave us exportable surpluses of manufactured goods from our industrial regions. The American household was bit by bit relieved of its many wearying industrial occupations. The weaving and fabrication of clothing were taken over by the textile mills and the ready-to-wear industries. As the century progressed, the household no longer made its tallow candles, nor butchered, dressed, and cured its own meat, nor canned its vegetables and fruit. Even the baking and laundry work have been industrialized. Today we see the home transformed from the depths of drudgery into a place of recreation and leisure.

It was no mere accident that technical education, in engineering and agriculture and their allied sciences, was born during this early period of our industrial era. Rather it resulted from an insistent demand from the American people for a new type of higher education, in which the chief emphasis should be on the physical sciences in their relations to industrial and agricultural life. The history of that era tells us of mass meetings, petitions to legislatures and to Congress eventuating, after years of effort, in our present system of land grant colleges with other technical colleges which came with the movement.

Unlike other types of professional training, the movement which brought forth technical training asked and was granted not a post collegiate professional school, but a new type of college, on the same level with the older traditional arts colleges. Accepting the mandate of the Morrill Act and the

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popular movement which Senator Morrill represented, the engineering educators have carried well their double burden to give the fundamentals of a liberal education along with the professional training.

Through the years these technical colleges and the older arts colleges have competed with each other in a race for supremacy or existence. Perhaps the competition has unwittingly been of great service to both. Side by side the two types of collegiate training have advanced, each absorbing or adopting the best from the experiences of the other. The purely literary, which dominated our colleges of a century ago as the all-pervading purpose of education, has been put in its proper place as a means to and not the end itself of higher education. The natural sciences came to be recognized as a possible cultural factor and now, almost too late, we find the social sciences given recognition as a vital factor in education for living.

How absurd we have been in our frozen conceptions of what constitutes an education! If education is not to teach us to make a living, it at least should teach us how to live with one another. And yet how woefully have we failed, blindly resisting the most obviously necessary changes.

Even in my generation Latin and Greek were considered essential to culture. How I struggled through declensions, conjugations and other absurd mechanisms of a defunct language. I learned "amaverim, amaveris, amaverit, amaverimus, amaveritis, amaverint," but did that teach me anything about the art of love? No, I learned far more of that by playing "post office." I can still recall some of my declensions and conjugations, but I never get a chance to use them. My mind is cluttered up with such absurdities, while all around me I see real problems of living that I long to understand—problems that keep the whole world in agony for lack of rational, acceptable solutions.

Perhaps we, in the realm of technical education, have been as narrow in our concepts as we thought the classicist of an earlier generation to have been. If so, we should rid our minds of the silly things which clutter up the corners and make room for clear, orderly, progressive thinking.

Engineering is the creative application of science. The engineer creates new things to satisfy human want and craving and then creates great industries to supply them at prices which shall bring them within the reach of all. *How well* we have succeeded! Succeeded so well that there has been starvation in the midst of plenty. Millions have wanted to purchase, but had not the means, while factories with capacity to supply all have stood idle. Is it not time that we found out why? Is the engineer who created such plenty to blame because he performed his chosen part so well? Did he overlook some part of his duty; if not his duty as an engineer, then perhaps his duty as a citizen of the world? So long as the effects of the things we do are not understood by us, then to that extent have we failed.

In our seeking to apply scientific knowledge for the benefit of mankind,

we have created specialized schools of thought and action. One we have called "Medicine," and we leave to it our physical health. Another we call "Law," and to it we have entrusted the writing and enforcing of the rules of human behavior. To the agriculturalist we entrust the production of our food supplies and to the engineer all of our other physical wants. But the ever-increasing subdivision of our activities has rendered us incapable of understanding and controlling the relationships which should exist between these individual sciences and our objective, the larger life. There must be analysis of each problem, but there must also be synthesis to fit the solution into the whole scheme of life. It is not the duty of any one group, but the duty of all, to see that there are no omissions or oversights. Each must understand his relation to the whole scheme of things.

When a railroad selects a president from among the heads of its several departments, it does not select for promotion the legal head who may understand all the legal problems; nor the chief engineer because he may be thoroughly conversant with all the engineering problems of railroad construction and maintenance; nor the traffic manager who may know how to keep the trains and cargoes moving. Rather, it picks the one department head who best understands the inter-relationship of all the departments—the one who has the best comprehension of the work of the departments other than his own.

Dr. Karl Compton has said, "Just as old civilizations were limited by their tools of stone and bronze and therefore described as the Stone Age or the Bronze Age, so our civilization is epitomized by our progress in the engineering arts. If developed and managed properly, it is the products of science which can give every person in the country such opportunities for the finer things of life as were never before enjoyed even by the favored few."

The engineers had built a plant capable of doing all the things which Doctor Compton predicts, when suddenly, something went awry—some unforeseen forces applied the brakes and brought our much vaunted material progress to a stop. Certain neglected factors in our economic and social organization caused the machinery to jam. Were the engineers to blame? Neither they nor any other element of our specialized society had ever considered that the engineers' responsibility extended so far beyond the exclusive realm of technology. Yet, clearly, it is the much-heralded advance promised by science which is being delayed by the failure of all of us to adjust our economic and social schemes of organization to permit the reaping of the full benefits of technology. It has been a simple, clear case of "what is everyone's business is no one's business." Not only must the engineer understand and consider the social implications of his work, but so must every other element of our complex society be brought to a clearer understanding of the necessary readjustments which society must make to absorb the impact. Like the modern automobile, we need to cushion the engine

in rubber, we must add synchronized springs and shock absorbers to make the journey a pleasant one, and not one of rough bumps and jolts, and safety glass through which we can envision clearly the passing landscape.

The engineering professions are not claiming that they are the chosen ones to readjust our social and economic mechanisms, but we purpose that future engineers shall not ignore these factors in successful living. We humbly admit that we have left ourselves exposed in an indefensible position when we have disregarded the social consequences of our work. We believe that in the future, all science and all learning must be prepared for a joint attack on this area which we might aptly call "no-man's land."

Down through all the ages the heart of man has prayed to be relieved from wearisome toil; to rear his family in security and comfort; to have some physical and spiritual pleasures while here on earth. Or, despairing of hope here below, he has painted his pictures of the life to come with pearly gates, golden pavements, the music of lyres and all those comforts and luxuries which he has found denied to him here below.

After all the ages of despair came suddenly the industrial revolution, which opened up a vision of hope for humanity here on earth. Poverty, want, and ignorance were to be abolished. There would be plenty of leisure for art, music, literature—all the finer things of life that can come only after material wants have been supplied. Applied science, education for making a living, was to show the way.

The way is still open and we still may, with some modifications in our program, come closer to the Utopia that was promised.

Let us keep our education forward-looking, using the past only for the lessons it may teach. I have no sympathy for that president of a great university who implies that the natural science of Aristotle and Archimedes is sufficient foundation for an engineering career. His very statement ridicules his own preparation for living in this Twentieth Century. Let us teach, rather, the physics of Planck, Einstein, and Darrow. Neither is the economics of Adam Smith or Karl Marx sufficient for our uses of today. We need most of all new economics in keeping with the times.

Let us realize that we are living in a new age, in a dynamic age; and let us direct the eyes of our students toward the world that is to be, not only that, as technologists of the new era of science, they may make their contributions to our material welfare; but that, as citizens of the world, they may, with understanding, share in the creation of a new social order that can advance in full step with the advancements of science.

The Social Inadequacy of Education*

By WILLIAM BENNETT BIZZELL
President of the University of Oklahoma

Emphasis has been laid in the addresses of this conference on education in a dynamic age. This topic has many ramifications and suggests a varied range of discussion. It implies that we are living in a dynamic age and that education needs to take account of the temper of the times. I presume that most of us subscribe to both of these assumptions.

The age in which we live is characterized by the influence of power, and the energy generated by it has increased the momentum of practically every device known to man. But the fact that the productive horse-power of machines in America now exceeds a billion does not tell half the story. The effects of the enormous increase in productive energy have influenced profoundly the thoughts and habits of man. Education as a social agency certainly needs to take account of these influences.

Let us recall for a moment some of the things that science and technology have accomplished in our generation. It seems to us, in the light of all that has happened in recent years, that we have always had the motor car, the aeroplane, and the radio ; but the fact is, these agencies of the new civilization are largely products of our own generation. In 1903 motor cars were in the experimental stage and no one thought of running one of these machines more than twenty miles per hour. Today if a man should run an automobile on a busy thoroughfare at this slow rate of speed, he would be arrested. In the same year, 1903, Orville Wright flew an aeroplane for fifty-nine seconds in the air, and five years later a daring Frenchman flew a monoplane across the English Channel. Today the aeroplane has attained a speed of four hundred miles per hour, and ships of the air are flying with such frequency and regularity across the oceans that these occurrences have ceased to be news. Previous to the World War the *Lusitania* and *Mauretania*, sister ships, of 31,500 tons displacement, were launched. It was assumed that they represented the last word in design and probably the maximum of speed that a seagoing vessel could attain. But I crossed from Southampton to New York in August on the *Queen Mary*, a ship of more than 80,000 tons displacement, in four days. Back in 1902 Marconi sent a radio message across the Atlantic. This was regarded as a miracle of science ; but today the radio has become a household necessity like the iceless refrigerator, the telephone, and the sewing machine. The moving picture began to attract attention in 1904. Today it is the principal source of entertainment for millions.

The increase in speed since the early years of this century has been swift,

* An address delivered before the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 4, 1936.

accelerated, and spectacular. The distance between remote places has been reduced in twenty years almost to negligible proportions. As Gerald Heard said in *These Hurrying Years*: "The increase of speed, the direction of exploration and the development of new senses may be taken as three advances, all of which will influence soon and radically the life of man." Never before in history has life been so characterized with change. Those of us living in this generation have the experiences of several epochs crowded into one lifetime. In the paleolithic period of geological history, it took three hundred years to change the style of chipping a flint instrument. Since the beginning of recorded history, eras have been measured by millenniums. We speak for convenience of the Periclean Age, the Augustan Age, and the Victorian Age; but, after all, they were merely different aspects of a common era where emphasis was shifted from one aspect of life to another. So many events and experiences have been crowded into the period since the World War, which are different from those of any past generation, that it may be said we are living in a world that differs more distinctly from the last years of the nineteenth century than that period differed from the Elizabethan Age in England or the age of Louis XIV in France.

Does education need to take account of this transformation? I think it does. To what extent has education been influenced by this speeding-up process? I do not believe that it has been influenced to any great extent. But educators cannot be indifferent to the mechanical forces about us and the acceleration of speed they have generated. New reservoirs of energy are being tapped constantly and they are multiplying the experiences and habits of every one. It is these changes in thought and deed that should become the concern of education.

THE MOMENTUM OF GOVERNMENTAL MACHINERY

Let us look at the picture from a slightly different angle. The Constitution of the United States was adopted at a time when conditions were very different from what they are today. The organization of our government under the Constitution was adjusted to the temper of the times. Our forefathers provided for great deliberation in procedure. The machinery of government was designed to operate slowly. The Constitution attempted to establish three coördinate divisions of government—the executive, the legislative, and the judicial. They were designed to slow down political action.

We have been told recently that our Constitution was designed for a horse and buggy age. This is true in the sense that the organization of government under its provisions was designed to prevent hasty action; but with the acceleration of progress, increasing difficulties have been experienced with our legislative machinery. While the three divisions of government have been coördinate, they have not been equal in power and influence. There

has been a remarkable parallel between the dominating influence of one or the other of these departments and the speed of social change. In the beginning, the legislative branch of government predominated over the executive and the judicial. In time, the judicial slowly gained supremacy over its two coördinate branches ; but when the time came for prompt decisions, the executive branch slowly acquired predominance over the other two branches. Today executive power everywhere has become the predominating influence. In times of crises, great decisions cannot wait on the slow processes of legislative bodies or the routine of judicial procedure. The situation became so acute after the World War that dictatorships arose to replace legislative bodies, and judicial tribunals lost much of their prestige and influence.

In this country we have seen an enormous increase in executive power in recent years. When President Franklin D. Roosevelt came into office in 1933, the country was confronted with a crisis. The stability of the social order was threatened and there was a demand for prompt decisions. Congress provided enormous funds from the public treasury and gave the chief executive unprecedented power to expend the money as he saw fit. Never in our history was such potential power placed in the hands of a president ; but the country approved at the time, for the situation was desperate. The thing we overlook, however, in this tendency to concentrate power in the hands of an individual is that the mechanical forces, which science and technology have produced, have so speeded up our social order that the old organization of society based on slow motion and deliberation no longer fits into the scheme of things.

I am not attempting to defend dictatorships or to justify the concentration of power in the hands of an individual. I am simply attempting to describe the situation as it actually exists. But the fact that we have not recognized the underlying causes of this readjustment in political power is at least one reason why we have fumbled the ball and stumbled over the side lines.

THE MOMENTUM OF EDUCATIONAL MACHINERY

The organization of our educational institutions reflects very much the same situation. Our school systems were developed when social organization was relatively simple and mechanical power had not exerted much influence on our habits. The machinery of education has increased through the years, and changes in educational policies have become increasingly difficult. In the meantime, the mechanics of civilization have been reacting rapidly to change not only our thinking, but our capacity to perform the task assigned us. The forces about us have been increasing our sensibilities and intensifying our emotions. Our thinking processes have speeded up and life has been surcharged with new energies.

It has been inevitable that our educational system under these conditions would get out of adjustment to life. It is a strange paradox that the research

activities in our institutions of higher learning and the new applications of knowledge made by our schools of technology should contribute to throwing the whole educational system out of gear. But this has actually happened in our own time.

We have talked much about functional education. Every one realizes that our educational institutions are not ends in themselves but means to an end. They are designed to adjust life to its changing environments. I am not unmindful of the fact that during the past century new objectives have been set up. An ever changing curriculum has been adopted in an effort to adjust education to the demands of the time. But in the meantime, complexity in organization within our institutions has increased steadily. Governing boards, faculties, committees, and heads of departments have slowed down the machinery and clogged up the works. Under existing conditions, it is almost impossible to make changes either in internal organization or policy.

Let us look at three significant aspects of this situation.

1. Specialization and Departmentalization

Much is heard these days about over-specialization and differentiation in subject-matter. Before the rise of modern science knowledge increased so slowly that it was easy to keep the subject-matter of instruction well adjusted in the curriculum. Faculty members found it relatively easy to go about the task of digesting, interpreting, and relating old knowledge to fresh accessions to this or that field. No one was disturbed by a sense of haste lest a new discovery might upset the program of instruction. But with the rise of modern science and the wide-spread interest in research, educational administrators slowly lost their control over the content of knowledge.

With the great extension of the scope of knowledge as a result of modern research, differentiation of courses began and specialization developed. "We could not if we would, and we would not if we could," says Glenn Frank, "wipe from the record the rise and results of specialization in man's quest for new knowledge. But, as tool or technique, specialization has its limitations, and when it is forced to function beyond these limitations its use results, at best, in diminishing returns and, at worst, in downright hurt." This situation has developed two serious consequences.

In the first place, in setting up arbitrary boundaries for scientific knowledge, we are losing the perspective of knowledge as a whole. At a time when research is breaking down the border lines between the sciences, the arbitrary departmentalization in our institutions is setting up barriers that are harmful to education. I only need to remind you of the interrelation of geology and geography, physics and chemistry, zoölogy and botany, to illustrate this situation. It has been found necessary to hyphenate science to bridge the chasm between the several fields. In order to relate biology to chemistry, we now have departments of biochemistry; and departments of geophysics present a synthesis of the border line between geology and physics. This hyphenation is going on through a long list of newly established relationships in the fields of research and interpretation. While I have no disposition to disparage this synthesis of material within the twilight zones of knowledge, I remind you that it is largely the product of over-differentiation of subject-matter.

In the second place, this differentiation has resulted in over-departmentalization in our institutions and promoted a spirit of competition between departments that

is adding greatly to the cost of education and creating internal problems of administration that are indescribable. When the depression settled down upon us and resources for education were reduced, there was much talk of a new synthesis of knowledge and a consolidation of interrelated departments. It was generally believed that this situation provided the opportunity for a solution of the problem. But strange as it may seem, the machinery of education operated too slowly for very much to be accomplished. It is a lamentable fact that little was actually accomplished in integrating knowledge and synthesizing departments.

2. *Institutional Competition and Duplication*

Competition in education has taken on a more serious aspect in the organization of state systems of education. In many states, particularly in the South and Southwest, the number of state-supported institutions exceeds the requirements for educational service and the ability of the state governments to supply adequate resources for them. In many cases these institutions in an effort to increase student enrollments are duplicating needlessly the work of each other. This has brought severe criticism on the part of the public and given justification for the charge that educators are not conserving the resources for education or utilizing them wisely.

Throughout the country junior colleges have emerged out of high schools, teachers' colleges have extended their courses to standard four-year colleges, and some of these institutions are now awarding masters' degrees. The college of liberal arts in our universities has lost its way in an effort to do high school work, college work, and a certain amount of specialized work in several fields. The confusion of objectives on the part of the college of liberal arts has tended to discredit the bachelor's degree. This situation explains Barrett Wendell's suggestion that it would simplify educational procedure to confer the bachelor's degree upon every child at birth.

There are few people today who know what a university really is or should be. There are colleges that are called universities and universities that are called colleges. The quality and scope of the work of these institutions are as confusing as the name each one bears. Essentially, a university is an educational institution designed to promote educational research and to provide instruction in the various fields of professional education. The highest academic recognition of a university is the Ph.D. degree. The catalogues of our universities in setting out the requirements for this degree state that the student must present an acceptable thesis which represents an original contribution to knowledge; but all of us know that this is only one of the numerous fictions found in every catalogue.

Junior colleges have come to occupy a very important place in American education, but administrators of our universities have not found this out. These colleges have exerted little influence on the organization of universities. I think that the two-year junior college is a very unstable element in our system of higher education. It seems to me that in time the public junior college will develop a four-year curriculum embracing the last two years of high school work and the first two years of college work. Other types of junior colleges will probably become four-year senior colleges of technology or liberal arts. As President Robert Maynard Hutchins pointed out in a recent article in *Harper's Magazine*, there is need for an institution to give a general education. Although, as he says, we do not know what a good general education is, or the content of the curriculum required for it, it is likely the junior college may be the one institution that should be assigned this task. But, be that as it may, it is certain that the junior college is destined to exert a profound influence upon the organization of our high schools and universities.

The duplication of effort and confusion in standards are well known to every one.

These problems are discussed at almost every teachers' convention, but we do not seem to be able to do anything about them. Surveys are frequently made and elaborate reports are printed recommending adjustments in educational organization in the interest of economy and efficiency. In a few isolated cases, reorganization and redirection of effort have resulted from these surveys; but in many states, no benefits have been derived from the surveys that have been made. The reason is that legislatures work too slowly and educational machinery is too complicated to do the thing that every one realizes should be done.

3. *Mental Capacities for Education*

There is one other situation that I should like to call to your attention. The great increase in student enrollment in most of our schools and colleges has caused many people to charge that too many students are enrolling in our institutions and that we are attempting to educate many of them far beyond their native capacities. Some critics are daring enough to suggest percentages which range all the way from 10% to 90%. I presume most of us will agree that there are students enrolled in our schools and colleges who cannot profit by the educational process, while others are enrolled in specialized courses and professional schools who do not have the aptitudes to succeed in the vocations to which they aspire. This problem has baffled educational scientists and administrators for a generation. Psychological tests and other devices have been used to differentiate the moronic goats from the intellectual sheep. Vocational clinics have been established and personnel guidance organizations have been set up to help students determine their capacities and limitations. But who would be so bold as to proclaim that we have found the solution to this problem?

INADEQUACY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

I think this analysis is sufficient to show the social inadequacy of education, but the picture would be far from complete without some reference to the position of the social sciences in the curriculum. The age in which we live has produced a bewildering number of social problems that have baffled the best minds of the world. Taxation, governmental control or regulation of business, the tariff and international trade, monetary problems, technological productivity, unemployment, economic security, limitation of armaments, crime and racketeering, prohibition, mental hygiene, birth control, safety on highways, use of leisure time, and shifting moral standards are illustrations that come readily to mind.

Many of the social problems of today are new and involve untried experience. Dr. A. N. Whitehead says in his *Adventures in Ideas*: "The whole of this (our) tradition is warped by the vicious assumption that each generation will substantially live amid the conditions governing the lives of its fathers and will transmit those conditions to mould with equal force the lives of its children. We are living in the first period of human history for which this assumption is false." This startling statement accounts for the futility of our efforts in solving the many problems that press for solution.

The sense of futility so wide-spread today is due to a feeling that we are slowly losing control over the forces that science and technology have

unleashed for us. This has created an attitude of distrust of science in some quarters. Some years ago a great English bishop went so far as to declare that a holiday on scientific investigation is desirable; but this is certainly not the attitude of most thoughtful men, for it is generally understood that to retard the progress of science would be to place restrictions upon the increase of knowledge and change a dynamic society into a static one.

It is generally understood today that the way out of our difficulties is to bring the social sciences to a place of importance comparable to that of the natural sciences. There is need to develop techniques in the social sciences similar to methods of research in the natural sciences.

Science is concerned only with the discovery of truth; but it is one of the paradoxes of our civilization that as science has increased our knowledge, the spirit of uncertainty about the future of society has steadily increased. This situation has caused many to believe that the way out of our uncertainty is not by placing restrictions upon the scientific spirit, but by elevating the social sciences to a place of equal importance with the natural sciences.

There has been a wide-spread belief that it is practically impossible to make the scientific habit of thought prevail in the consideration of the solution of social problems. The application of statistical and other research methods that are now being applied in the solution of social problems indicates that laboratory practice can be utilized in the scientific investigations of the social science worker. "In every phase of our life," say Leo E. Saidla and Warren E. Gibbs, in their book on *Science and the Scientific Mind*, "there should be that same seeking for truth, that same clearness of vision, and that same strict adherence to the facts, which characterize the men of science. When we learn to carry the same habits of thought that we develop in the laboratory into our political, social, economic, and commercial life, we shall soon work a revolution in the forms that these aspects of our civilized life have developed. We are notably aware of the effect science has had on industry."

The same thought was in the mind of Dr. Harry Elmer Barnes when he said in his book, *The History of Western Civilization*: "The stupendous changes wrought by critical thought, science, and technology in our material civilization have given rise to problems that can be solved only by a corresponding development of the various social sciences which deal with the diverse aspects of social life that have been so thoroughly revolutionized since the days of George Washington. . . . We must bring the social sciences up to something like the same level of development and objectivity that has already been attained by the natural and applied sciences. Not only must we develop in this way accuracy and comprehensiveness in the particular social sciences, but we must also provide for proper and intelligent coöperation between them. As modern society is a unity of diverse processes and institutions, so these social sciences must be a coöperating group enriched

by contributions from investigators in many realms of human endeavor."

The people of the United States have now entered upon a vast program of social welfare. Social security has become the dominating thought in the minds of our political leaders. In the enthusiasm of the moment, there is danger of much misdirected effort and wasteful expenditure of public funds. The institutions of higher learning have an opportunity that they have never had before to give the right direction to the whole program of social legislation.

CONCLUSION

I have attempted to point out some of the inadequacies of our educational system. There is need, as I see it, to simplify the organizations that have been established as a means of speeding up educational procedures. The public has a right to look to educators for leadership in developing educational machinery that will serve the social needs of society more effectively and speedily. Retardation of educational adjustments has brought upon us the evils of over-specialization and departmentalization, institutional competition and duplication, and caused the public to feel that we are not resourceful enough to differentiate between student capacities and incapacities. Our educational institutions have been experiencing great hardships during past years and the future does not look encouraging unless we are able to adjust educational practices to the requirements of the new social order. There is wide-spread prejudice against education today, and the way to overcome it is to convince the public that we have the ability and the unselfish desire to make the most of the resources at our command. We must convince the public that educators are concerned primarily with intellectual accomplishment and that scholarship is being served by our institutions. I cannot look hopefully to the future of education in this country unless these high purposes can be realized by our schools and colleges.

Progress Report on the National Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards*

By JOSEPH ROEMER

Dean of the Junior College, George Peabody College for Teachers

HISTORY OF THE PROJECT

One year ago, at Louisville, Dr. W. C. Eells, Coördinator of the Study, made a progress report to this Association. Consequently, it will be my endeavor "to bring you down to date from that point" on our common undertaking.

In order to orientate you a bit let me quote a few items from the April, 1936, issue of *The Educational Record*.¹ The article from which I quote was prepared by our Coördinator. It gives a bit of historical data which will give the background of our study to date.

HISTORY OF THE STUDY

1. Preliminary Stages

Although not formally organized until the summer of 1933 the origin of the Coöperative Study of Secondary Standards dates back five years earlier. A very brief summary of some of the preliminary states is given below

February, 1928. Plan for a study of secondary schools holding membership in regional associations developed by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. Action delayed, due to National Survey of Secondary Education.

November, 1931. Atlantic City. Plan for a coöperative study revived at the annual meeting of the Middle States Association. Appointment of a commission representing different regional associations proposed. Action deferred by economic conditions.

February, 1932. Washington, D. C. Resolution recommending a "coöperative study of secondary school standards" adopted at the fifth annual meeting of the National Association of Officers of Regional Associations, and referred to the various Associations for official action.

April, 1933. Chicago. The North Central Association appointed its twenty state chairmen as a committee on study of standards for accrediting secondary schools. Designation of a sub-committee of five as an Executive Committee named as representatives on a possible cooperating national committee. Small sum of money appropriated for initiation of study. Meanwhile, favorable responses received to the resolution of February, 1932, from all but one of the regional associations.

July 3, 1933. Chicago. The Committee of Five of the North Central Association met with representatives of the Southern and Middle States Associations in an all-day meeting. Dr. George F. Zook, then United States Commissioner of

* A report made to the Commission on Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 1, 1936.

¹ *The Educational Record*, American Council on Education, April, 1936, pages 277-79.

Education elect was present by invitation. Decision to ask Dr. Zook to call a conference at Washington representing all six of the regional associations.

2. *Organization and Progress to June 30, 1935*

The conference mentioned above was held, on call of Commissioner Zook, at the United States Office of Education, August 18 and 19, 1933. Four associations were represented by nineteen delegates. Dr. G. E. Carrothers was made chairman, and Mr. Carl A. Jessen, secretary. Ten specific proposals were formulated, including ones for cooperation and financial support by some national educational foundation. The General Committee of Twenty-one and the Executive Committee of Nine (the present organization) was also provided for at this meeting.

Further progress of the study prior to the current year may be conveniently summarized in the following statements:

November 4-5, 1933. Cincinnati. Meeting of Executive Committee. Development of general plan of study and procedures for securing official endorsement and financial support on the part of all six regional associations; for securing support from some educational foundation; and for suitable publicity.

June 29-30, 1934. Washington. Meeting of Executive Committee. Reports of contributions from five of the regional associations of \$4,501 for the first year, with understanding that same or larger amounts be available for second and third years of the Study. Agreement that "following eleven fields are the most promising in which to develop guiding principles for the accrediting and stimulation of secondary schools": aims, staff, educational program, pupil personnel service, finance, library service, plant, articulation, administration, institutional growth, and outside relationships.

February 23-25, 1935. Atlantic City. Four meetings of General Executive, and Administrative Committees. Report that Dr. O. I. Frederick had been employed during the previous July to September, and Dr. M. L. Altstetter since October, 1934, at Ann Arbor and Nashville, constructing bibliographies and abstracting significant research studies in the eleven fields mentioned above. Also, that arrangements for voluntary assistance in abstracting material in specific fields had been made with professors and graduate students at the Universities of Missouri, Pennsylvania, Chicago, New York, Stanford, Harvard, Boston, Indiana, Ohio State, California, and Minnesota, and George Peabody College for Teachers. The purpose of this abstracting was to derive from existing research studies the most nearly valid principles and facts which might serve as bases for criteria to be used in evaluating, stimulating, and improving the secondary school program. Report that the various Associations had, to date, appropriated \$8,500 for the purposes of the Study, plus contributed services representing a much greater sum.

February 27, 1935. New York. Conference of the Administrative Committee with representatives of one of the national educational foundations with reference to adequate financing of the contemplated three-year study. Request made for funds, for one year only, to complete the abstracting of research studies and to formulate criteria and procedures for later tryout—the first phase of the Study. Decision made to defer consideration of financing the second and third phases until the work of the first year could be evaluated.

April, 1935. New York. Preliminary grant of \$25,000 made by one of the national educational foundations to finance, in part, the first year of the Study.

May, 1935. Washington. Meeting of Administrative Committee. Arrangements made for the opening of a central and research office in September at Washington with a full-time staff consisting of Coördinator, Educational Specialist, Secretary, and other clerical assistance as needed.

The quotation above brings you down to July, 1935. The entire thought and efforts of the group from July, 1935, to July, 1936, were directed toward evolving a set of tentative standards. Roughly three years time were devoted to research and investigation in carrying through this phase of the study. Let me say in passing that if the time required to do this seems long, that over 2,500 bibliographic references have been abstracted and summarized in this undertaking. An earnest effort has been made to take advantage of every experiment, study, research, or proposal that has any bearing on secondary school standards. It has been a big task to "fine-tooth-comb" the field for all helpful material. A second reason it has taken so long is that we are not "patching up" the old standards. Since our whole philosophy and approach are different from the current standards, we are attempting to evolve a set of new standards. Of course much of the material found in the old standards will be incorporated in the new; but only such part or parts will be used as synthetically fit into the program.

ACTIVITIES OF THE COMMITTEE THIS CURRENT YEAR

It is seen above that it has taken about three years of research to evolve a tentative set of standards, or criteria of evaluation, to be used. We are now in the fourth year of the undertaking. The Committee has designated the work of this year as one of experimental try-out of the new criteria of evaluation. The chief activities of the year fall under two headings, namely, the application of the criteria by four field-teams of visitors and a rather comprehensive testing program. Each of these activities will be discussed in some detail.

Selecting the try-out schools. In planning an experimental program to try out these tentative standards, two hundred representative schools were selected for experimentation. In selecting these schools due attention was paid to the following determining factors:

- a. Accreditation status;
- b. Geographical distribution;
- c. Control—public or private;
- d. Enrollment;
- e. Race;
- f. Form of organization;
- g. Type of community served;
- h. Type of program offered;
- i. Willingness to cooperate;
- j. Sex of students;
- k. Denominational control;
- l. Boarding or day schools.

The two hundred try-out schools were selected during the late spring and summer of this year, and the administrative heads were given full instructions as to the nature of program to be pursued during the year.

Selecting the field workers. After careful study it was decided that four committees of three members each would be needed to do the field work. This arrangement gave each committee approximately fifty schools to handle during the project. From two to five days would be utilized by the committees in working a school, depending on its size.

Each of the four committees is composed of three members. Two of these members are giving their full time to the project, and the third member is usually the state high school inspector of the state in which the school is located. Every effort was made to get representative men on these teams. College professors, public and private secondary school principals, and state department inspectors are represented on the teams.

Personnel of visiting committees. Following is a list of the eight men engaged for full time service in visiting schools during the year, with a brief sketch of each man's professional activities. In the case of two, Mr. Bush and Mr. Lozo, the terms of service definitely contracted for are four and five months respectively, with the possibility of extension if necessary. For the four chairmen it is nine months, for the other men eight months each, beginning September 15. The four chairmen are named first.

Paul E. Elicker, principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts. A.B., A.M. (Columbia); Ed. M. (Harvard). Vice President, Department of Secondary School Principals, N.E.A.; member executive committee and examiner for College Entrance Examination Board; secretary Massachusetts Curriculum Committee; trustee Newton Library Association; chairman Boys' Committee, Newton Y. M. C. A.; etc.

Frank C. Jenkins, State Department of Education, Jackson, Mississippi, and Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern Association. B.S. (Mississippi, 1913); A.M. (Peabody, 1924); Ph.D. (Peabody, 1934). Formerly high school principal and city superintendent at Corinth and Kosciusko, Mississippi; supervisor of Mississippi high schools for four years; Director of the Department of Education of Millsaps College for four years; and Director of the Mississippi Teacher Training and State Curriculum program for the past three years.

Paul A. Rehms, principal of Battle Creek High School, Battle Creek, Michigan. A.B. (Michigan, 1923); M.A. (Michigan, 1928); course work for Ph.D. at Michigan completed. Formerly instructor in Purdue University and Ann Arbor High School; principal of Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, and of Mt. Clemens High School; principal at Battle Creek for past seven years; assistant director boys' camp for eight years; President Michigan High School Principals Association.

F. L. Stetson, Professor of Education, University of Oregon; Graduate White-water (Wisconsin) Normal School, 1904; A.B. (Oregon, 1911); A.M. (Oregon, 1913); research scholar and graduate student, Columbia and Chicago. Teacher and principal in elementary and high schools in Wisconsin and Washington for four years; professor of education, Oregon, since 1913; director of its summer session, field representative, etc., for four years; principal of its university high school for three years; director of research of Northwest Association and member of its Accrediting Commission on Higher Education; district representative of Phi Delta Kappa.

Charles W. Bush, Director of Personnel Records, University of Delaware. A.B. (Delaware); B.A. (Oxford). Member of bar, state of Delaware; principal of Friends School, Delaware, for thirteen years.

John P. Lozo, graduate student University of Pennsylvania. A.B. (Penn. State, 1924); A.M. (Penn. State, 1925); Litt. D. (Honorary, Albright, 1935); course work for Ph.D. at Pennsylvania completed. Formerly instructor in grade school and small high schools for nine years; assistant principal, Altoona (Pa.) High School four years; principal Reading (Pa.) High School for seven years. Wide range of speaking and writing experience and chairmanship of state educational committees.

William L. Iverson, instructor in Golden Gate Junior College, San Francisco. A.B. (Fremont, 1904); A.B. in Ed. (Washington State, 1923); A.M. (Stanford, 1930); Ed.D. (Stanford, 1936). High school principal or superintendent at Libby, Montana (three years), Spokane (one year), White Sulphur Springs, Montana (three years), Culesac, Idaho (five years), Garfield, Washington (two years), and Pullman, Washington (six years).

J. E. Worthington, principal of the Waukesha Junior-Senior High School, Waukesha, Wisconsin. Graduate of Indiana State Normal School; B.Ped. (Valparaiso, 1911); B.A. (Valparaiso, 1913); M.Ed. (Chicago, 1918). Experience as a rural, grade, and high school teacher in Indiana; principal, high school, Hobart, Indiana (three years); Director of vocational education, Waukesha (three years). Former president of Wisconsin Association of Secondary School Principals and of the Southern Wisconsin Teachers Association.

Above are the data for the two members of each of the four committees, the third member of the committee being the state department representative. Since practically every one is participating they will not be named here. Finally, the country was zoned and the four committees assigned their respective territories.

The work of the field committees. The field workers are coöperating closely with the administrative and research office at Washington. Coöperatively the Committee plans to study these two hundred schools intensively, employing at least the following means:

1. Statements from each school indicating (1) its educational philosophy and (2) its definitely recognized purposes;
2. A body of factual data, supplied by each school, relative to the various areas—pupils, staff, plant, educational program, and administration;
3. Reports of studies and experiments; other evidences of the nature and quality of the work done by the school;
4. Personal visitation of each school for periods of two to five days each by a committee of three men representing different points of view and relationships to the secondary school. (The functions of these visitors will be: (1) to form individual and group judgments concerning the general character and quality of the school; (2) to apply the tentative criteria in the five different areas to the actual work of the school; and (3) to render a group judgment as to the degree to which the stated purposes of the school are being achieved.);
5. A testing program designed to measure the fundamental ability of students and significant changes in their academic achievements and desirable social attitudes during the year;
6. A study of the success of graduates of each school who have entered various standard colleges and universities or engaged in other post-school activities.²

² The Educational Record, American Council on Education, April, 1936, pp. 277-79.

TESTING PROGRAM

The second phase of the year's activities of the Committee consists in putting through a well-planned and fairly comprehensive testing program. Again the same two hundred tryout schools are being used for experimentation.

The fundamental purposes of the testing program is two-fold: (1) to furnish one of the independent, objective criteria by which to judge the general quality of the tryout schools; (2) to determine the value of certain aspects of standard tests as one means for the evaluation and stimulation of secondary schools. For both purposes it appears desirable to measure progress during a school year in the five general fields of English, social science, natural science, mathematics, and foreign languages, as well as changes in general attitudes—all progress to be interpreted in terms of the relative ability of pupils as indicated by the American Council Psychological test.³

In administering this testing program ten men trained in testing were selected for the work. Each man handled twenty schools. The same men will handle the same schools again in April or May, 1937.

SUMMARY OF THE YEAR'S WORK

It is planned to have all the field work of the four committees completed by May 15 or June 1 of 1937. As soon as the schools have all been visited a number of the eight full-time workers will be called to headquarters for the purpose of pooling their experiences and compiling their final, consolidated report. This will be completed by July 1, next.

The first testing period was this fall. During October of this year ten men administered tests to approximately 20,000 pupils. At present a staff of workers are scoring these tests at headquarters. In the spring the second testing period will be held. Again these tests will be brought to headquarters for scoring. It is planned to have the first test data available for use in the next year's undertaking. Then, as stated above, this, the fourth year of the study, is one of tryout of and experimentation with the new criteria of evaluation with two hundred carefully selected schools.

THE FINANCIAL PHASE OF THE STUDY

Nearly two years elapsed after the study was launched before the General Education Board came into the picture with a substantial contribution. During these two years the work progressed under considerable handicap. Part of the funds appropriated by the regional associations was expended under the direction of the Central Committee. During this time the chief research activities consisted of abstracting the bibliographic references of approximately 2,500 and getting much of the ground work completed in preparing the new, tentative set of standards.

³ The Educational Record, April, 1936, p. 288.

Since the Middle States Association was expected to make additional appropriations at its recent annual meeting, since this Association will also consider further financial aid during this week, and since the North Central Association in April will likewise be asked to make further financial grants, it is impossible at this time to give a complete financial statement. Suffice it to say when the study has been completed, and all the associations have made their final appropriations, that the total figure comprising appropriations from all sources will approximate \$160,000.

While the material resulting from the experimental work in the tryout schools as outlined above will be summarized as fast as received during the year 1936-37, there are many aspects of it which cannot be studied until the year's experimental program is completed. It is planned, therefore, to devote the greater part of the year to an extensive analysis of results and an effort to evaluate each feature of all the above material and procedures in order to determine their validity and relative importance and significance. The conclusions would then be published and made available to the regional accrediting associations sponsoring the Study.⁴

OUTCOMES TO BE ATTAINED

At the conclusion of the study the committee expects that the following outcomes will have been attained :

1. Secondary schools and regional and state agencies will be provided with valid criteria for identifying a good secondary school ;
2. Regional and state agencies will be provided with improved procedures for evaluating the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives ;
3. Techniques and procedures for the continuous improvement of secondary schools will be discovered and their effectiveness demonstrated ;
4. Proposals for continuous programs of stimulation of the growth of secondary schools will be formulated as recommendations or suggestions to regional and state agencies ;
5. The development of a scientific coöperative program on the part of all the regional associations and other agencies interested in the progress of secondary education. (The Committee conceives this as the most important ultimate outcome of the entire study. This program will make possible the effective utilization of the results of scientific study in educational practice⁵.)

IN THE INTERIM

Evidently a goodly portion of patience and common sense must be exercised in working out this program. Too much is at stake to act hastily and without due deliberation. It is going to be necessary to make many adjustments in this next year or two-year transition period. Present standards, judiciously modified, will have to function until the new ones are ready.

⁴ The Educational Record, April, 1936, p. 288-89.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 289.

Problems of Secondary Education That Need Investigation*

By E. D. GRIZZELL

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania

The nature of the problems for investigation in any field at any time is determined largely by the impact of social and economic forces upon the institutions concerned—in this instance the institutions for secondary education. At the present time American secondary education is meeting problems never, in such proportions, confronting any system of secondary education. It is not alone the problem of increased enrollments; it is a complex problem of a sudden intrusion of a new kind of youth demanding to be served; of demands of a new kind of community, industrial and dynamic rather than agrarian and relatively static; and of a noticeably sudden shift in emphasis upon hitherto neglected aspects of our conception of a democratic social order. It is obvious that such changes in the pressure upon the agencies for secondary education must produce tensions and strains at new points. The alarming feature in the situation is that the nature of the new problems arising is such as to demand some measure of consideration to the whole provision for secondary education in this country. We are beginning to recognize that if we are to avoid the forced and wholesale reforms and reorganizations to which our secondary education has been subjected at intervals in the past, we shall need to develop some means whereby the necessary change can be given continuous direction and stimulation. I shall attempt to discuss some of the problems of secondary education demanding investigation, from this point of view.

If one examines the research contributions in the field of secondary education produced during the last thirty years, he will find that with rare exceptions they have dealt with narrow and somewhat technical aspects of educational practice. Two weaknesses are immediately obvious. (1) They have dealt with characteristics or aspects as features that could be measured or treated more or less objectively, ignoring the purpose, nature, and functions of the institution and the relation of the particular thing studied to the institution as a whole. Examples of such research are numerous in the areas of method, class size, staff load, guidance, school plant, study procedures, curriculum-making, test construction, and other types of research. (2) There has been little coöperative effort in coördinating the activities of researchers dealing with the same or similar problems, and with long-time studies that would probe deeply and exhaustively and by rigorous methods.

* An address delivered before the Commission on Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 1, 1936.

It is fair to say that research in secondary education has in general been characterized by superficial dabbling in efforts to solve surface problems.

In view of the fact that our efforts of the past thirty years lack the consistency and soundness needed as a foundation and that we are faced with new conditions requiring a more comprehensive research program than we have dared to attempt heretofore, it appears inevitable that we recognize the following :

- (1) More rigorous scientific procedures in educational research ;
- (2) Coöperative activities in identifying and studying significant problems in a wide variety of actual situations and over a long period of time ;
- (3) Recognition of the fact that a practical problem in secondary education should not be isolated from its environment for study—no educational agency or part thereof can be understood apart from its total setting ;
- (4) Continuous development of tentative generalizations that may serve to guide educational agencies in improving their practices ;
- (5) An agency that will provide the machinery and the professional guidance in putting research findings into practice.

A comprehensive analysis of the total situation reveals certain large areas in which need for research is revealed. Our choice of these areas is determined in large measure by the results of more than three years of study by the Committee for the Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards. The results of the efforts of that committee to draw upon more than two thousand contributions, mostly researches, reveal a need for research in the following areas :

- (1) Nature and needs of American youth ;
- (2) Nature and demands of the community ;
- (3) The program of secondary education ;
- (4) The staff for secondary education ;
- (5) The educational plant ;
- (6) Administration of secondary education ;
- (7) The nature of and the processes by which a philosophy of secondary education is evolved.

The specific problems within these large areas need identification by some agency such as the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education which has a special committee now at work on such a project. By way of illustration I suggest a few specific problems that loom large in connection with the present research program of the Committee for the Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards:

- (1) Scientifically valid procedures for determining the nature and educational needs of the youth of a given community. (This is of peculiar importance with the return of the older youth group to secondary schools.) ;
- (2) Procedures for discovering community need and demand for educational service, vocational, civic, and recreational needs being at present of great importance ;

- (3) Procedures for translating the educational needs of youth and the needs and demands of the community into attainable educational aims or objectives ;
- (4) Procedures for selecting the elements of an educational program for all the youth of a community, including the difficult problem of making provision for the older youth ;
- (5) Procedures for providing a curriculum for each individual receiving secondary education in a particular community ;
- (6) Procedures for determining the most effective ways of directing the learning of the bright pupil or of the pupil with very low ability ;
- (7) Procedures for integrating the total educational program of the individual ;
- (8) Procedures for utilizing community resources in an expanded educational program ;
- (9) Procedures for effective guidance in secondary education ;
- (10) Essential qualifications, if any, for effective teaching in secondary education ;
- (11) Essential qualifications, if any, for the secondary school principalship ;
- (12) New types of professional service needed for an expanded program of secondary education in large urban areas ;
- (13) Procedures for the education of personnel for an expanded program of secondary education ;
- (14) Procedures for adapting and expanding educational plant to provide for the total educational program ;
- (15) The most effective organization of the staff for the development of a program of supervision ;
- (16) Procedures for developing a comprehensive evaluation program ;
- (17) Procedures for discovering valid evidences of the effectiveness of a secondary school ;
- (18) Experimental determination of the essential elements of a system of pupil records in a secondary school ;
- (19) The optimum and minimum enrollment of a secondary school for the greatest educational efficiency ;
- (20) Studies of school and community relations ;
- (21) Historical and comparative studies in secondary school staffs as a means of testing their own philosophies of education.

Among the problems listed are those that need to be solved by each school for itself. For example, the program of secondary education in any community, since it must be geared to the needs of its youth and the demands of the community, must be different in some respects from that of any other community. It would seem wasteful of effort to devote time to research on the construction of programs in the abstract. On the other hand there might be developed procedures for determining programs of secondary education and of individual curriculum planning which would apply to any situation. Such problems as involve the determination of general procedures might well be the outgrowth of coöperative research activity on a wide scale.

There are, however, other problems such as the determination of a record system for use in secondary schools which might well be solved in its essential

aspects for all secondary schools. There are many other problems dealing with large areas or general practices, such as population studies, studies of technical features of school plant or of units for the control and support of secondary education, which might be solved in a limited investigation. In the case of studies in the evaluation of the school plant it should be observed that except for certain technical aspects such as lighting, heating, ventilating, and safety, the value of a school cannot be determined except with reference to the program of education to be housed and implemented.

I would call attention at this point to the need for securing the coöperation of non-educational research and specialist groups in the solution of many of our most pressing problems. Studies of the youth population call for the aid of the sociologist, the psychologist, the biologist, the medical and health expert, and perhaps other specialists. Studies of community needs and demands require the coöperation of existing research agencies, occupational, civic, cultural, and other agencies. Studies of educational plant call for the coöperation of architects, engineers, experts on illumination, heating and ventilation, and specialists on population trends, transportation and other factors related to the location, planning and development of school plant. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the point of view that the problems in secondary education that are of chief concern to the professional educator—the principal, the teacher, or other educational worker—are those that are directly related to providing an educational program suited to the youth of the community. Consequently, every problem for research must be seen in its relation to its setting in the total provisions for the education of youth. An educational program that is ever so clearly thought out in the abstract is a good program only to the extent that it serves its youth in their environment, the community. A staff may be highly qualified on paper but unsuited to direct the program required. A school plant may be perfect as rated on any of the best score cards for secondary school plants and yet be a handicap to the educational program it is meant to house. The administration may be mechanically perfect in organization and management and fail utterly to make those things that are educationally vital administratively possible.

The practice at the present time tends to emphasize the study of isolated, specific problems. Our failure to utilize the results of the thousands of such research studies is in itself a condemnation of the procedure from the point of view of professional gain. Even such an important contribution as the report of the National Survey of Secondary Education is probably known to and used by a very small proportion of the staffs of the secondary schools of the United States. How, then, can the best results of educational research now available or to be produced in the future be put to effective use in the improvement of secondary education?

In my judgment we have in the regional association the machinery for

making the results of research effective. The present Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards is attempting to do the sort of thing that will meet the present need. It has canvassed the existing research findings and is attempting to test them experimentally. The present effort will reveal needs for further investigation and the ways in which the results of such investigations can be made to affect continuously the practice in secondary education.

Character Education in Secondary Schools*

By J. P. McCALLIE

Headmaster, The McCallie School, Chattanooga, Tennessee

During June I read to a group of educators gathered at the McCallie School a paper entitled: "Foundation Stone in Building Boys," whence the invitation by Dr. Smithey to speak to you on "Character Education in Secondary Schools Today." I disclaim knowing more about this subject than any of you. I accepted this assignment, not because I felt fitted to deal with it, but in order to get it dealt with at all. There can be no question among us educators that the principal thing we are driving at in our classrooms should be rightly developed personality, good character. This product so far surpasses excellent scholarship, there can be no doubt that every school should give the elements that contribute to successful character building the utmost consideration. I shall just touch the fringes of this immense subject, but I trust we shall give it more consideration year by year, until we arrive at the best method of accomplishing our real objectives in education; namely, training and perfecting our natural faculties or powers for the most efficient usefulness in life.

I have seen somewhere that Theodore Roosevelt once said of his Alma Mater, Harvard University, that it had educated more crooks than any university in the country. I cannot verify this statement, but if he did say it, it was not because Harvard University was more crooked than other universities, but because it has had a longer opportunity to produce the misfits of education. To train a man to do well a wrong thing is simply sharpening tools for the devil. That kind of education is not essential and the less we have of it, the better off the country.

I believe in education, education with the big *E*. That is my profession. I am engaged in it as a life work and have been for thirty-three years. Just a generation. But I frankly say to you it is over-estimated. The education of the schools and colleges today is not an essential thing, at least, not as it is largely being administered. A man can be a happy and useful and influential citizen without even a high school education, much less a college education. I know many such men in my own community and have read of scores of them. It is true that most of them are educated in the University of Hard Knocks, we would say self-educated, but they got something out of life in their contact with the world that they would not have gotten in the colleges and schools in all probability. These men did not take an education because they could not afford it. Their parents could not give it to them.

* An address delivered before the Commission on Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 2, 1936.

They are now able to give their sons an expensive education, and in many cases, all the worse for the boy.

In Korea recently after the Japanese with their higher education and training took hold of their country, the simple-minded Koreans thought that all they would have to do to regain possession of their own land, or to live at ease, was to educate their children. They had abiding faith in the miracle-working power of an education. They sold homes, mortgaged farms, made every sacrifice to send their sons and even daughters to school, firmly believing that as soon as they finished the high school, they would be somehow powerful enough to provide for the old age of their parents. Many were the pangs of disillusionment! Bankrupt parents, having sacrificed all, are now having to support worthless sons who have been educated away from the soil and are too proud to work with their hands. I met one such young man when I was on an island in the Korean Archipelago some years ago. It was the beautiful and secluded spot where the Japanese Admiral Togo hid his fleet, suddenly to burst forth and sink the Russian fleet at sea. I was at the home of a young high school student. My missionary brother was introducing me to a new life and I was very inquisitive. I asked many questions. At last I said, "Where is your mother?" "She is out in the bean patch, pulling up bean roots," he replied. "What do you do with bean roots?" I asked. "We use them for fuel to cook with," was his answer. "Why aren't you helping her?" I ventured. This was his reply, "I pulling up bean roots?" He lifted up his pretty, tender hands and long, highly-polished fingernails, "Why, I am a scholar!" I never wanted so much to kick a scholar in my life.

An education that does not fit one to live the life he has to live in this world is not worth while. An education that does not ennoble life and give it a great objective, elevating it from making a living to making a life, is not worth while. An education that does not enable one to live happily and contentedly and unselfishly, useful to neighbors and country, is not worth while.

As I have stated, character education, the worth-while education, is one that trains and perfects our natural faculties or powers for the most efficient usefulness. In the whole realm of nature, outside of human nature, it is simply marvelous how all created things fit into their environment so perfectly that they are able to function as they were intended to do. The birds, the insects, such as bees and flies, the wild animal life, the flowers, all vegetation needs no training to be able to adjust itself to live efficiently and successfully in the place where it finds itself. This idea has been expanded by every naturalist and is one of the abiding wonders of nature. The birds know how to build their nests, even the most complicated kind, the spiders weave their matchless webs, the bees secure their honey and store it in perfectly constructed combs of hexagonal cells which geometricians have proved

to be the most economical of material of all possible designs. All of this is done without education or training on the part of the parent. There are no schools needed apart from mankind. No curriculum must be worked out. No institutions are required to enable all of these creatures of God to live happily, successfully, efficiently together. Why is it not so with man? He is admittedly the highest of all God's creatures, made in His own likeness, yet he does not know how to live peaceably with his neighbors, he cannot live happily, successfully, or efficiently without long years of training. Leave him to himself, and he degenerates to the jungles, to cannibalism, to tribal warfare, to superstition, to cruelty untold, yes, even in his bodily form to the pygmy stage. The cat can walk in a few hours, run in a few weeks, and be forever independent of mother in a few months, but not so with the human baby. I cannot believe it was so intended by the Creator. In creation God perfectly adapted man to his beautiful environment. He was happy, efficient, and successful without any such education. It was God-given. But man's disobedience, his fall from his fellowship with God, has changed all this. Man's refusal to accept God's method of creation and his complete acceptance of the serpent's method of evolution, of getting wise to good and evil, of becoming like God by gradual process, of man-made education, if you will, has resulted in degeneration, in descent of the species instead of ascent. Man lost his perfect touch with nature. His friends, the animals, became his enemies. He was no longer suited to his environment. He could not even live peaceably with his brother. He needed an agriculture course to instruct him how to make the ground yield her fruit in spite of thorns and thistles. Thus it came about that man's unwillingness to listen to God's revelation and turning an eager ear to Satan has lost him all the marvelous instincts God naturally had given him as He has His other creatures. We have been forced to substitute for those gifts of God by His creation, man's meagre makeshift methods of education. Educator that I am, I am not excessively proud of education's attainment. It is terribly limited.

Education can save no one from selfishness, from sin, from Satan. An educated crook is the most dangerous man in the world. Let us frankly recognize its limitations and acknowledge the superiority of God's method. If only man knew, as well as bees and birds, how to live, what a world this would be!

I come back to my first statement that the worth-while education, character education, is one that trains and perfects our natural functions for the most efficient usefulness, and without hesitation, I affirm that this cannot be done separately from the revelation of God's will. The Bible is an indispensable textbook of education. As Dr. Henry C. Link in his book entitled, *The Return to Religion*, which, by the way, I commend to every one of you to get and read through, states: "The greatest and most au-

thentic textbook on personality is still the Bible." All other texts may change, but this one never. My school has been in existence thirty-two years, and absolutely the only text we have now that we had when the school was founded is the Bible. Even the dictionaries and the encyclopedias have had to be changed. The study of this Book only will better fit a man for happy, successful, and efficient living than will all other textbooks combined. Said a professor of English at Yale, "I would rather my boy had a good knowledge of the Bible without a college education than the latter without the former."

So far as we know, this was the only textbook the Lord Jesus had, the chief textbook of Paul. These two have influenced the world as no other two men that ever lived. The third most influential man of all times, Moses, began the Bible, as he was the author of the first five books. What did he think of the education of the world as compared with this kind of training in the knowledge of God? The Scriptures state that he was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians, and we know that was the greatest this world afforded. We are just digging up evidence still of the marvels of men's knowledge in that day. Yet it was this that Moses gave up for the superior knowledge of God, which was revealed to him.

I have been working earnestly for the restoration of the Bible in the schools of our country. After witnessing what twenty years of Bible instruction had done in my own school, I made the effort to get it into the public schools of Chattanooga. A group was formed, plans were made and the right authorities were approached, and, to make a long story short, now for over fifteen years the Bible has been taught in the public schools of Chattanooga with nine thousand enrolled in Bible classes this year in the white schools, and four thousand children in the colored schools. This has been extended to Hamilton County, where five thousand more are studying Bible week by week throughout the nine months of the school year. In all, eighteen thousand children this year will be under instruction in the schools of Chattanooga and Hamilton County, of which Chattanooga is the county seat. Some thirteen or fifteen full-time teachers, paid salaries commensurate with regular school salaries, are employed, and there are some twenty or thirty volunteer teachers that are helping in this great work, and no less than one hundred seventy regular school teachers in the rural schools of Hamilton County are giving a period a week with special permission of the County Board of Education to Bible instruction in their classrooms. I do not have time here to tell you of the character training resulting from this, but it is sufficient to say that large passages of Scripture are memorized, including the Ten Commandments, the Beatitudes, the Psalms, and from lives of great Bible characters traits of honor, honesty, loyalty, purity, faith, and love are learned.

I believe it is absolutely essential for us educators to recognize the limita-

tions of man-made education before we can properly evaluate character education. I would call your attention again to Dr. Link's book, *The Return to Religion*, especially two chapters, the one on "Fools of Reason," and the other on "The Vice of Education." Dr. Link, a practical psychologist of the Psychological Research Bureau of New York City, after examining thousands of school children and college students, states that experiments conducted during the past five years prove conclusively that formal education above the grade school does little or nothing to improve personality or character. Specifically, he makes these two startling statements: that the people with practically no education have personality or character traits equal to those of college graduates, that the poorer students in a high school or college stand as high in personality traits as do the much better students, that people who have the highest scholastic intelligence as measured by tests of scholastic capacity are just as likely as not to be lowest in personality traits; that although the personality of some students improves during the high school or college ages, that of others deteriorates, so that the net result is zero. In other words, there is no average improvement of personality due to education. He further states that one of the most expensive studies in this field is that based upon the ten thousand individuals examined by the adjustment service of the government. When these individuals were grouped in accordance with their education and their performance in tests of personality traits, it was found that college students were not significantly superior to high school students, or high school students to grade students in respect to the personality trait measured. Furthermore, he says that there is no body of evidence in the whole field of psychology that proves any definite growth of character or personality as the result of higher education in its generally accepted forms. There is a growing body of evidence that no significant growth in personality is brought about by such education. Indeed, there is some good evidence that the contrary often occurs, and that the prolongation of formal education results in a deterioration of personality or character. Quoting again, "Although these findings may seem extremely radical, they only confirm what many employers, parents and even some educators have learned from personal experience. Employers no longer fall over each other in their haste to employ college graduates. Moreover, in making their selection they are often more influenced by a student's extra-curricular activities and his achievements in dealing with his fellow students than by his success with professors." He quotes Speaker Cannon as replying to an undergraduate interviewer who asked him what he thought of a college education: "Well, I don't think a college education can do much harm to a young man of average intelligence." "Such views," he says, "even though held by a considerable number of thinking people, have a limited significance, but when their truth is demonstrated by scientific tests, or tests approaching scientific certainty, they challenge the most superior consideration. When

widely enough recognized, the long overdue revolution in our comparatively modern traditions of education will quickly take place." Says Professor Link, "Although conventional educators may not realize it, the C.C.C. camps probably represent the first important stage in the revolution of education in America."

Undoubtedly, therefore, we educators should be exceedingly humble in this whole matter of character education and try to improve methods and curriculum by which we may accomplish results that are worth while. After saying what I have said as to the limitations of human education, I do not want you to think that I hold in light esteem real education. It is only as I compare it with the Revelation of God that it sinks into the background. If we put it in its proper place and realize its limitations, and change in the essential details much of the curriculum that we have at present, we know that we simply cannot do without it.

The character education about which I am speaking should concern itself with the three "H's." The Head, the Heart, and the Hand. As a rule, most education deals with the head only. In the manual arts and domestic arts both boys and girls are trained to coördinate with eye and the muscle and accomplish worth-while habits, master the use of tools, and learn valuable trades. The Jewish lad of our Lord's time was taught the Bible and a trade; thus was the Lord taught. The head and the hand were trained, while the heart was made tender to the obedience of the Laws of God. The Lord learned to use the carpenter's tools, and Paul learned to make tents, while Moses was a great shepherd. We need tremendously to get back to this simple method of teaching. Harvard University has five hundred professors and several hundred courses of instruction, but not one to train a man how to live happily with his wife, how to train his children, how to live unselfishly with his neighbors and his community. May we approach this character training with true humility. I like to think of Sir Isaac Newton, that great man of God, the greatest mind of all time, when he said, "I seem to myself as a little child, standing on the seashore; here and there I have picked up a pebble or shell more brilliant than others, but out before me lies the vast ocean of knowledge all undiscovered."

As a school man I have learned that in every boy we have the complex product of thousands of divergent lines of remote ancestry, some good, some bad, and the immediate impression of training by parents and grandparents in the home, many of whom do not realize the mistakes they are making by unwise loving, yielding to desires and whims, spoiling, pampering, or misunderstanding. Dr. Abbott, headmaster of Lawrenceville, in his splendid book, *The Boy Today*, which every father should read as well as every educator, indicts the parents in a fearful way. He told me in his own study of one father who pretended over long distance telephone from New York, he had to have the boy come up to get some new clothes. Dr. Abbott

bethought himself of the fact that the "World Series" of baseball games was on in New York just then and so said: "All right, but he is not to take in the 'World Series,' but come immediately back." "Well," said the father, "I guess he can do without the new clothes then." Another father surreptitiously sent his boy a check for \$500.00 spending money each month until Dr. Abbott found it out, and ordered it stopped or the boy withdrawn. I have had almost equal experiences from grandmothers interfering. Dr. Abbott's book gives the most pessimistic picture of this generation I have yet seen, save one, and that is in George Seldes' book, *Can These Things Be?* We are in an age that has substituted relativity for reality, psychology for prayer, an inferiority complex for sin, social control for family worship, auto-suggestion for conversion, reflex action for revelation, astronomical intimidation for the fear of God, and the spirit of power for the power of the Spirit.

So we must begin to build the boy the first day he is born, and the three foundation stones I want briefly to mention as fundamental in character building are Industry, Responsibility, and Obedience to Authority. It is my firm conviction that the majority of failures in every race, profession, or vocation are due to laziness. God said man must earn his bread in the sweat of his brow. One, and almost only one, of Soviet Russia's tenets that I admire is that everybody must work. There is to be no loafing. Paul said, "If a man will not work, neither shall he eat." We have too many drones in our civilization because the distribution of wealth is unfairly made and too many people don't have to work. While there are right now vast numbers of people unemployed, a great many of that number are unemployable through sheer laziness and incapacity for work.

I called a boy to my office the other day and said, "My boy, why do you think it is that you are failing in this class?" "Doctor," he replied frankly, "I know why it is. I am lazy. I don't like hard work, and studying is hard work to me." The great majority of boys that fail at college drop out because of lack of industry. Edison is the American ideal for industry. True genius, it was demonstrated by him, is the capacity for hard work.

Children can be trained to work, and they can be allowed to loaf. What do you men ascribe your success to? Was it the good times you had, the easy life, the loafing, and letting work slide? Too many parents, remembering some heartaches and disappointments, and forgetting that these were the very things that developed character and made them successful, are too prone in days of wealth to say, "Well, I don't want my boy to have the hard time I had. He's a boy only once and I'm going to see to it that he enjoys life." O, foolish father; O, foolish mother! To me one of the outstanding miracles of America is John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and his sons, unspoiled by riches, because John D., Sr., is accustomed to give away only dimes or millions (dimes to children, millions to philanthropy), and his son and his

grandsons have had to work for their money. One of the boys has been a night operator at college, working his way through. These boys were on allowance starting at twenty-five cents a week and going up as they grew older. It is recorded one of them said to a companion at prep school when he asked him why he did not have a racing boat of his own, "What do you think I am—a Vanderbilt?" I said to the son of a wealthy Rotarian in a filling station where he was working, "Put it there, partner, I would rather shake a dirty hand than a clean one when it is dirty with honest labor." My main effort as a school man has been to instill the love of hard work—industry.

Even more important is the foundation stone of responsibility. It was Daniel Webster who said the greatest thought that ever passed through his mind was man's accountability to God. Owen D. Young has in an article stated that the reason there were not more big men in America was because so few were willing to take responsibility. Boys are little men just as much as men are big boys, and they like to be treated as men. The early development of responsibility in a boy, by assignment of tasks, by trusting him, by praise for duty as well done, by wise and tactful criticism or careful planning and working with him, can bring its own rich reward in a responsible character.

It is amazing how much is absorbed from contact with others. Napoleon's generals by contact with a man who took responsibility became the world's great military leaders. The twelve disciples by daily contact with Jesus for three and one-half years were enabled to undertake the simply herculean task of evangelizing the Roman Empire and carrying their gospel to the uttermost parts of the world. Our boys pick up from us traits of responsibility such as truthfulness, honor, honesty, square dealing, good sportsmanship, facing the music, taking your medicine, rising above defeat, by just watching how we fight life's battle. That is why the most important element in character education is educators of character. Men, these are the days of great character building. It is better for our boys that money has been tight, that times have been and still are hard, and that they can see how we have met defeat and depression. They can learn far more than in times of prosperity. Now is when we must keep cheerful, show hope, love, and faith and really prove our belief in the statement, "All things work together for good to them that love God."

We create as many jobs as we can around school and give titles to them and strive to develop responsibility by actual practice in accomplishing things. Military training has this advantage far more than in the knowledge of military affairs. It pushes a boy forward to assume responsibility. We recognize in civic clubs just as we do in church or in business or in the state how few real leaders there are, because there are so few willing to take responsibility and the attendant hard work. Responsibility depends on industry.

The last stone in our boy's foundation is obedience to authority. The fearful breakdown in parental authority is in large part responsible for the lawlessness in the state and towards God. A six-year-old son was heard to say to his mother who was calling him indoors: "Shut your mouth, and shut the door. I'll stay out as long as I please." The comic paper had an only too true wisecrack when it pictured a nurse saying to her friend who was asking her to go out with her that night, "Oh, I just dassent leave baby with its mother."

Lawes, Sing-Sing warden, in recent issues of the *New York Times Magazine*, says the penitentiary population is becoming a "kid", instead of an adult, population. The trouble is parents wait too long to require obedience. If your child has not learned to obey before six years of age, you cannot expect right conduct after sixteen. Gentlemen, I believe in authority, authority in the home, authority in the school, authority in the church, authority in the state, authority in God. The breakdown in obedience to law has started in the refusal to recognize the authority of God.

I was expecting to become an astronomer and spent three years as fellow in the great Leander McCormick Observatory at the University of Virginia. I am of a scientific turn of mind, and I am not accustomed to take things because of tradition, or on the word of others without a reason. With all the emphasis of which I am capable, I say to you men today that it is the most scientific and reasonable thing in the world to believe in God and in the Bible as His Revelation. The internal harmony and unity of this book, composed as it is of sixty-six books, written during a period of over a millenium and a half, by kings and servants, by generals and herdsmen, by lawyers and fishermen, by doctors and tax collectors, the marvelously corroborating testimony of archaeology, much of which I have seen myself in the museums of London, Paris, Rome, Constantinople, Leningrad, Cairo, and Jerusalem, the fulfillment of prophecy in hundreds of cases, cited by such minds as Pascal and Newton as complete demonstration of divine inspiration, the effect this book has had on earth's civilization, the character of one man it portrays, Jesus of Nazareth, and the transformations wrought by faith in His name, these and many other things convince any open mind that divine authority exists and that obedience to that authority is the only way to complete success.

On July 31, 1914, I landed in Moscow the day before the World War broke, after eight days and nights on the Transiberian Railroad, and after three months in the Orient. As I stood in the magnificent Cathedral of the Resurrection in the Kremlin and observed the superstition and formalism of the long procession filing through the Cathedral to bestow a kiss on the glass above the dead hand of the old saint of Kasan that had been recently re-interred in the Cathedral, the consul's wife asked one of the priests, "Where is the beautiful bejewelled icon of the Virgin, belonging to this

Cathedral?" He replied, "It is blessing the marriage of the daughter of the Grand Duke." When she asked him as a special friend to tell her how much it cost to get it, he replied, "Ten thousand rubles, or five thousand dollars."

That whole system of superstition and graft has been overwhelmed. It has been replaced by a system of blatant blasphemy against God and of confident faith in man and in materialism. The present system of Bolshevick Russia is riding for a fall. Between the two, superstitious czarism and beastly Bolshevism, is the true path of a sincere faith in a living God and obedience to a divine authority which will save us from impending chaos. In this true path alone lies the development of the highest character. To get the best education one must go to the greatest teacher. The greatest character teacher of all time is Jesus Christ. Complete acceptance of and obedience to Him and His teachings will regenerate even the worst characters, even as it did the thief on the cross. "Now abideth faith, hope, love, these three, but the greatest of these is love."

Problems Peculiar to the Private School*

By WILLIAM R. WEBB

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During the hectic years of the immediate past we have discussed almost nothing but problems about this, problems about that. We have often heard that never before in the world's history have there been so many major problems pressing for solution ; and, for most of these, sooner or later we are told that ultimately the solution will be found through the proper education of a new generation. We teachers are expected to play a big part in solving the problems of the entire world.

Those who suggest this seem not to know that we have problems of our own. Some of these are common to all schools alike, whether they are public, private, school or college. Some that are common to all affect public and private institutions in different ways, and some effect different types of private schools more than they do others. The heads of private schools have suggested fifty-six different problems as peculiar to the private school. Some of these deal with the financial and material, some with the intellectual, and some with the spiritual values. I shall not take the time to list these, much less discuss them all.

One of the major problems of the private schools as a whole grows out of the fact that there are so many different types of schools that are not state supported. There are boys' schools, girls' schools, and co-educational schools ; boarding schools, day schools, and country day schools ; some that are completely military, some semi-military, and some non-military ; Catholic, Protestant, and denominational schools of all kinds ; mountain and mission schools, schools for the under-privileged ; conservative and progressive schools of various degrees. The majority of these schools have a correct attitude toward their work, feeling deeply the responsibility that is theirs, regarding it as an opportunity, and unsparing in their efforts to turn out finely-developed students that will make intelligent, happy, dependable and useful American citizens. Unhappily, I cannot say that this is true of all. There are a few that are operated primarily for profit. They cause our group some of its knottiest problems, and the average of the private school group as a whole is lowered because of these. Some of the problems that I shall mention have been forced upon the private school group by the practices of these few. One of our leading headmasters wrote, "The major problem of the private school is the necessity that our group has of carrying so many mediocre schools."

* An address delivered before the Commission on Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 2, 1936.

There is no reason for the existence of a private school that is nothing more than a pay edition of a public school. If a private school does not make some distinctive contribution to the training of boys and girls, it will soon close, and it is better that it should. The private school, for which there is a place, and which fills a real need, must be a specialty school of some kind. Many of us heard a prominent headmaster say, "The private school that merely competes with the public school is headed for inevitable failure and discredit. Unless a private school does something worthwhile, that a public school does not undertake to do, or unless it attempts to do a quality of work in some special line that is superior to that which the average public schools do, there is no excuse for its existence." There are parents, for example, who wish the education of their children to have a strong religious background; some of them prefer a denominational background. They must find this in one of the church-supported private schools; for this is a work the public school does not undertake to do, one, in fact, that in most states it is forbidden to do. Again, public schools with large enrollments can divide their classes into college preparatory groups and non-college preparatory groups and these can give adequate instruction to both groups. On the other hand, many of the public schools are forced to train these two groups in the same sections; and since the non-college group is usually the larger, it is impossible for these schools to give the intensive training that some of the stiffer colleges demand. Here is an opportunity for a specialty training on the part of the private schools.

The financial problem has been a major problem with us all during recent years. The public schools have suffered because there have been lower assessments, lower tax rates, and in many cases a lower percentage of the taxes raised have been appropriated to these schools. Those private schools which have the good fortune to be endowed have not escaped this problem, because even under the most skillful management invested funds have produced less than formerly. The strictly private school which depends entirely upon tuition fees has had its income cut through a lower enrollment.

It is human nature for each of us to think that his own problems are greater than those of anyone else. One of my friends, who is very powerful in the public school system, recently said to me, "You have no idea how you private school people are blessed. You don't have to lobby with the state legislature for funds." On the other hand Colonel ———, Superintendent of one of our best known military schools, recently wrote, "The financial problem is peculiarly one which affects the private school as contrasted with the public school, for the latter has the public purse to draw upon." The colonel, I feel sure, has had little experience with the difficulties of drawing upon the public purse for education in these troublesome times. Our politicians seem perfectly willing to shower money, even to waste it on public works and salaries of bureaucrats, but they are extremely economical when

it comes to investing in education. The financial problem of the public school has been more difficult than that of the private school. Since 1929 there has been a reduced income for both types of schools. With the private schools this reduction in income was combined with a reduction in the number of pupils to be trained, but the public schools have had to contend with the bigger problem of a reduced income combined with a decidedly increased enrollment.

While their problem has been the greater, ours seems great enough, and the financial needs of the private schools have forced some of them into practices that are not altogether wholesome. A prominent college professor in one of our strongest Southern colleges recently said, "We have convictions, but we simply cannot stick to our convictions because of our need for pupils." His was an endowed college. How much stronger this temptation is to an endowment school! With the private school the problem of income is primarily one of enrollment. In the past years this was not a problem with the well-established schools, especially those which had a reputation for the quality of their work. Public schools in the cities and in the larger towns have always prepared boys for college and prepared them well; but a generation ago the public schools in the country places and even in some of the towns did not look upon preparation for college as one of their functions. Boys and girls that lived in these sections were forced to go to private boarding schools if they wished to enter college at all. Today that is generally changed. There is almost no child in the land who is not in reach of a public school that can prepare him to enter most of the colleges. This improvement of the public school combined with the economies made necessary by the depression has very largely reduced the number of pupils attending private schools, and greatly intensified the problem of enrollment. Since there were fewer students available, these schools were forced into the keenest competition for those that were, and this has produced many changes in the practices of the schools.

Some private schools have always advertised in the national magazines. In recent years many new ones have entered the advertising field with the result that national advertising has not brought as great results as formerly. Those schools which have had good advertising plans believe that it pays them, but they state that to be effective the advertising campaign must be rather extensive and be continued over a period of years before it is effective. Even then the cost per pupil gained is high. The advertisement brings a catalogue request. The headmaster knows that this same request has probably been sent to a large number of other schools, and the task of securing that student has only been started. To secure an enrollment from this request calls for a catalogue and if it originates from an advertisement, it must be an elaborate and expensive catalogue; and, in this, pictures count for more than words. For some years catalogues have been growing

more and more elaborate and expensive and the larger number of these are wasted upon those who are never heard from. It has been found that in the majority of cases the catalogue must be supplemented by a personal call from a representative of the school. Some private schools have always canvassed for pupils, some have not. During the depression years many which did not canvass formerly have placed representatives upon the road, and those which formerly canvassed have largely increased the number. Some schools now have representatives that travel the entire year, and during the summer months they increase the number largely. There is no use in having a school represented by an inferior man. He must be an expert if he gets enrollments enough to pay his expenses. Such men must be well paid; they must stop at the best hotels, and their expenses are necessarily high. The cost of securing pupils is a very large item in the operation of a private school today, and too much time of the headmaster is devoted to the effort to get pupils. This intense competition has resulted in some unethical practices but usually on the part of the mediocre schools. The better schools have never resorted to these, and in many sections there are local associations that have tried to eliminate them entirely. In these efforts they seem to have met with some degree of success. A father was asked how his daughter was progressing with her music. "She is improving," he replied, "either that or we are getting used to it." Unfortunately all of the private schools suffer from an unethical practice on the part of any. The high grade schools have always been careful to speak in a complimentary way of competing schools; but under the intense competition of the past seven years some canvassers have made adverse criticisms of other schools, and it seems strange that any parent would be influenced by this method generally discarded long ago even in the commercial world. Some of them make adverse criticisms of the public schools, although this is specifically forbidden in the codes for canvassers in practically all local associations. The schools that refuse to come under these codes are the ones that cause the friction that should never exist at all.

This intense competition has resulted in price cutting, which has become one of our major problems. The price is not reduced *per se*, but it is offered in the guise of a scholarship or of a job, which carries a wage out of all proportion to the work that is done. Some of the schools do have true scholarships which have been provided by alumni or wealthy friends. Some of these are endowed, but there never have been the hundreds of scholarships such as have been awarded in recent years. Some of the very famous academies have tried to conceal their reduced enrollment by offering tremendous scholarships to boys outside of their normal territory. These reductions have become so common that few parents expect to pay the printed rate and most of our catalogue requests today ask for "your lowest price," a scholarship, or a job. Recently my school received a letter from a mother asking for a catalogue and also asking that we provide her boy with

a job that would pay *all* of his expenses, and stating that the job must be one that would not interfere with the boy's studies, his recreation, or his sleep. The price-cutting evil is a major problem of the private school, one that we must find some way to curb.

Private schools attract some students of all types, but there are two types that predominate: the very bright and ambitious on the one hand; and the dull, the idle, and the failures on the other. The bright and ambitious attend because they have a reason to desire some special type of instruction. The other type attends because they are failing where they are. Principals of public schools often recommend that certain of their students be sent to private schools. Occasionally we get a fine pupil from this source, but as a rule public school principals do not recommend that their best students be sent away, and headmasters have learned to scrutinize rather closely the applications that come from this source. We have also learned to examine very closely the applications of those that are transferring from one private school to another. A student making a fine record or developing healthily does not often change schools. The better schools—those whose primary purpose is to develop scholarship and manhood—have learned that the very ambitious and the failures cannot be accepted in the same school without lowering the morale of the entire student body and turning out an inferior product.

This produces for the better schools a problem of selection, and nothing that we attempt is harder to do wisely, for oftentimes a change in environment will produce a decided change in the attitude of a child. Before reaching a decision to reject it is necessary to learn, if possible, the reason for the inferior work or the poor development. During recent years private schools have been desperately in need of pupils, and it has been particularly hard for a headmaster to refuse a pupil even when that pupil seemed to be undesirable. And yet the better schools have done it all along, sticking hard and fast to an ideal, for it is absolutely necessary that they do so, if these schools are to maintain their reputation for the excellence of their products.

Those schools that restrict their enrollment to the better type always have the problem of the brighter student. All schools have this problem to some extent, but it is intensified in the school that selects. All teachers know that when they assign lessons that are too long or too difficult they throw their classes into demoralization which sometimes spreads to an entire school. If demoralization comes from this cause the only way to correct it, of course, is to give lessons of a more reasonable length. But exactly the same type of demoralization may be produced by lessons that are too easy. A child must not be discouraged by having more than he can do, but he must be kept out of mischief by having all that he can do. It takes fine judgment on the part of any teacher to know just how difficult a lesson to assign. When an assignment is given of proper difficulty for the student of average ability (if such a student exists), it is not hard enough for the brighter one, and we

do him harm. I live in a section where some famous race horses have been developed, and the trainers have a saying, "If you wish to train a horse to win, you must make him travel his best gait every day." We must stimulate each pupil to his best mental effort every day if we give him the full development that he should get. Before the days of the Carnegie units, based on a measure of time, the private schools allowed the brighter students to complete their courses in three and in rare cases within two years. That plan was somewhat similar to the well-known experiment now being tried at the University of Chicago. The rules of the accrediting agencies today do allow a shortening of the time for the brilliant student but not to the same extent as before. We are forced to supplement their class work by special tasks, which are hard to enforce, or to induce them to enter extra-curricular activities.

This problem is not so intense in the schools that do not select their students. These complain that one of their greatest problems is of an almost opposite kind. In pre-depression days parents who preferred private schools sent their children for the entire four years; but we have few of these now; and the majority of students that enroll come for the last two years only. Those who come from the better public schools are splendidly prepared to carry on their work with us; but too many that transfer from the poorer schools, either public or private, often lack the proper preparation or are careless in their habits; and have not learned how to work. None of the better private schools accept for graduation just any sixteen units the child chooses to offer. To protect scholarship these schools require some sort of sequence in the selection of subjects. Most of them require for graduation that most of the subjects taken in the fourth year must be senior subjects. Some students and parents cannot understand why we refuse to recognize for graduation credits in band, stenography, typing, agriculture, and home economics. In spite of the wrong subjects, poor work, poor preparation, and past failures, the parent demands that we discover some short cut and graduate the student on time, a thing that cannot be done by any self-respecting school. Many private schools regard the problem of transfers as one of their most difficult problems.

Another problem of the private school comes from the changed attitude on the part of parents toward their children. A generation ago the parent selected the school, told the child where he was going, and that ended it. Today the parent allows the child to select the school. In the old day the private school catered to the parent. Today there is a universal effort to make the school attractive to the child, and it is a tendency that within reasonable limits should be encouraged, not condemned. We have learned that for the development of a healthy personality we must keep the child happy and contented, and both public and private schools are very properly working for this end; but some of the methods that we both are using for this

are based upon the wrong conception of what constitutes happiness. We forget that the finest form of happiness comes from unselfish conduct, from a feeling of achievement and from the sense of duty well performed. And yet in public and private school alike too many of us are catering to the child's idea of happiness—a maximum of entertainment, a minimum of work, and the gratifying of the child's desire to do only what he pleases. In those private schools that seek mere numbers and not excellence of work, there has been a tendency to increase too much the entertainment features and to make the work entirely too easy. Where numbers are the object, unfortunately it works.

Another problem with the private school group is its relation to the accrediting agencies. There are usually far more public than private schools on the accredited list, and the rules that have been adopted for the accrediting privilege are better adapted to public than to private schools. Even when the rules adopted require the best practice, they are not needed by either the better public or the better private schools. These rules are needed by the poorer schools of both types, but especially by those public schools that are located in the smaller places, for in these places too often the local board of education is composed of men who do not know what constitutes good school practice. Many of these boards think that their chief function is to keep down expenses, and the principal in such places can never get the funds for a good school unless he can use the technical rules of the regional association as a prize upon these boards. The public school men located in these places prefer this type of accrediting rule. The private school men cannot use these rules in that way, and some of them chafe under these technical regulations. The better public schools also desire more flexibility than is now allowed. It was Gladstone, I think, who said that the best governed people are those that are the least governed. Burke also said, "It is one of the finest problems in legislation to decide what the state ought to take upon itself to direct and what it ought to leave with as little interference as possible to individual discretion." Between the private schools there is the most intense competition. The private school that survives over a long period of time must do superior work of some kind. This situation forces the private schools in the main into good teaching practice. I am sorry that it does not have this effect upon all of them, but neither do the rules of the associations. Rules will never make an inspiring teacher out of an inferior one, and some of the latter know how to make out the best reports, when the accrediting rules measure quantity and time instead of quality of work.

The situation is further complicated by the many types of private schools. The rules that are adapted to one type are not adapted to another. If the public high school, the technical high school, and the high school for adult education were all under the same technical rules, there would be some hampering situations for some of them, and possibly for all of them. For

example, there is the rule setting a minimum salary for teachers. That rule as now worded is not needed for private schools. Those of us that charge for instruction must pay our teachers—even our cheapest—much more than it requires if we secure teachers that can do the type of work that it is necessary for us to do. But with the church schools and with the mission schools, it is a very different story. In many of these no salaries whatever are paid. Many teachers in these schools teach for the love of teaching or as the dedication of themselves to a life of service, expecting little more than their room and board and an opportunity to do good. Some of these are among the superior teachers of the country. Because of this situation I am told that the associations very properly do not enforce this rule with schools of this type. There is another illustration which will show the difficulty of making specific rules that apply to all cases. I was recently present when a regional association was trying to adopt rules for the selection of athletes. It was proposed that in any competitive game a limit be placed upon the number of boys who were granted scholarships, jobs or reduced tuition in any form. This made it impossible for a mission school in that section to have any team at all. It is situations such as this that make it so difficult to draw up a set of rules for all types of schools. Then there should be some rules for private schools that are not needed at all in the case of public schools.

The tendency of these rules is to make all schools somewhat alike, and there is no reason for the existence of a private school unless it is in some respect different. The tendency of the accrediting rules is to standardize all schools. The Southern Association has done a wonderful piece of work in raising the quality of scholarship in the schools of the South, both public and private. No one can deny that. Possibly standardization was necessary to accomplish that improvement within such a short while; but now many leaders in education in all parts of our nation are beginning to think that standardization has done its work; that it is now making for a static rather than for an advancing condition; and that possibly the time has come when we would make more progress in education if we would do away with it and devise a more flexible plan of accrediting. We long ago learned that we cannot turn out well-developed pupils by mass methods, and that one of the chief purposes of the educative process is to develop to the highest possible degree the personality and individuality of each pupil. Individuality cannot be standardized. If it could, there would be no individuality. It is desirable that schools be in some respects different, not alike; that each school like each pupil, have an individuality of its own. Many private schools are doing wonderful work, some of them serving a need that no other type of school can serve; but there is scarcely a school in all the list that does not find it difficult to do its work in the finest way and abide strictly by all the rules of the accrediting agencies.

Lastly, with the private school there is the ever-present problem of methods.

We private school people are terribly strong on methods, and some of the colleges aid and abet us in it. The University of Chicago School of Education has devised more new methods of teaching than any other place in the world unless it be the Teachers' College of Columbia University. With their aid we are always seeking new methods. We must "sell our schools" to prospective patrons, and from long experience we have learned that method has more advertising pull than anything else in the whole educative process. But, frankly, it is true within reasonable limits that method of teaching has little to do with results. Some boys and girls have been splendidly trained by every method ever devised, and others will remain untrained in spite of every known method the teacher chooses to use. It is the personality of the teacher not the method, that really counts. But because the private school has found it necessary to place so much emphasis upon method, it has been to a certain extent an experimental school. And here again rigid technical rules make experimentation difficult. Three years ago a group of strong schools was selected to work out a definite experiment in method; but, before they could undertake it, permission had to be secured from associations and from college entrance committees. Although method as a rule amounts to little, it is true that sometimes experimentation in method by the private schools has led to a better practice on the part of all schools. Not all advancement along this line has come from private schools, as is sometimes claimed, but much of it has. This makes the private school a sort of educational laboratory, and in it some valuable discoveries have been made, and some real contributions have been given to educational practice.

In the days before artificial refrigeration the boats that went out from Gloucester to the fishing banks for cod were equipped with large tanks having slatted bottoms; but in spite of this many cod died on the return trip and these brought a lower price than the live ones. Occasionally a fisherman would find that he had caught a cat fish instead of a cod. He was expected to throw this back into the sea, but sometimes he made a mistake and cast it into the tank. After a while it was noticed that, when there were a few catfish in the tank, there were almost no dead cod. An investigation showed that the catfish stirred up the cod and caused such a disturbance among them that the latter had no chance to crowd into the corners and smother their mates. Remembering the experimental feature of the private school and its occasional discovery of a better practice that becomes universal, we are safe, I think, in saying that one function of a private school is to be a "catfish among the cod."

Trends in the Training of High School Teachers*

By W. J. McCONNELL

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The education and training of teachers to the end that they should be able to render a distinct service conceived as worthwhile to the children and youth of this country and in turn to society in general has been a subject of more or less serious consideration in America for many years. Not until comparatively recently, however, had an appreciable number of those giving thought to the subject regarded the training of teachers as a technical ground work requiring technical knowledge and pronounced scholarship essential to the building of an enduring civilization for a dynamic age.

No worthwhile purpose would be served, were there no time limits on this paper, should facts be related concerning the early-day history, when laborers and craftsmen with little more knowledge of the rudiments of reading, writing, and "ciphering" "held" school during idle times, or when more highly educated men would impart ill-adapted learning in an ill-adapted manner to the youth of that day. Nor would it be fruitful for us to dwell upon the progressive changes which have taken place from that time to the present. This is commonplace knowledge to all. Suffice it to say that incidental was the education and equally incidental the service of the teachers of most of the schools, both elementary and secondary, up to the middle of the last century. Chance, more than preparation and planning, was the occasion for a career as a teacher; and chance, rather than planning, conditioned the good results, whatever they were, that came from the teaching.

This condition, tolerable under the simple life of that time, of necessity gave way to something different with the change to a complex life of the dynamic era in which we live today. In its broad historical and geographical aspects, that body of facts and skills considered as adequate possessions of a teacher at any given time and place is a function of the degree of culture or civilization of the more primitive and of political-religious distortions by the dominant element of the more advanced, such as may be found in Russia, Germany, Italy, and some other nations of the world today.

Making its advent into American life about 1875, the public high school entered clothed with many of the garments of the academy from which it sprang. The latter had emerged from the Latin-German school of the colonial period, and both of these early institutions left marks, inflicted by the teacher and the institutions where he was educated, which have persisted even unto the present day.

* An address delivered before the Commission on Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 2, 1936.

Concurrent with the coming of the rapid changes in social and economic structures during the last quarter of the century came corresponding changes respecting the place and function of the high school and, necessarily, of the training and education of high school teachers. A striking evidence of this change is found in the reports of two studies. The first, made by the Committee of Ten soon after the establishment of the public high school, asserted that "the main function (of the secondary school) is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long in school." The second, made about the turn of the century by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, declared that "secondary education in the United States must aim at nothing less than complete and worthy living for all youth."

The ideal set up in the latter statement, in spite of conflicting theories as to procedure and method of attainment, is apparently the dominant ideal in America for the century thus far. That progress is being made in the achievement of one objective, if in no other, is strikingly shown by an increase in secondary school enrollments from 630,048 in 1900 to 5,669,156 in 1934. This change, coming as it has with the most phenomenal changes that have ever characterized the industrial, social, and economic life of this nation, is in part the cause and in part the effect of changes and trends in the training of our high school teachers.

No attempt is made in the brief treatment of this subject to present an array of data, either factual or statistical, from which unassailable conclusions can be reached. It is freely admitted that some movements singled out as trends may later prove to be innovations or conditions.

Literature bearing upon the subject of teacher-training has been flowing from the press in such profusion during the past decade as to make more than a cursory examination beyond the reach of all but specialists in the field. Benjamin W. Frazier, Senior Specialist in Teacher-Training of the United States Office of Education, lists in "Education of Teachers, a Selected Bibliography, Bulletin No. 66, 1936," two hundred seventy-five contributions to this specific field published between June 1, 1932, and October 1, 1934, a period of only two and one-fourth years. Other periods are correspondingly rich in materials. Any comprehensive list of any period up to the present year would include the volumes, six in number, of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers. A representative number of these contributions has been examined in the preparation of this paper. In addition, personal letters, together with state regulations covering certification of teachers, have been received from all superintendents of public instruction in the United States. Finally, brief personal opinions from nationally recognized students in teacher-training have been obtained.

In the light of the information derived from these sources, the writer feels warranted in regarding the following as some of the trends in the training of high school teachers:

(1) *A trend toward an extension of time of training.* This trend is evidenced by progressive increases in the amount of college credit required for certification of teachers in many of the states. The effect of the imposition of such regulations is to add to the average scholarship of all of the teachers by requiring more scholarship of beginning teachers. The revocation of licenses obtained by teachers when standards were lower than they now are is looked upon with disfavor. While a summary of regulations by states shows a pronounced tendency toward a more advanced scholarship requirement for high school teachers, actual practices in larger and more progressive school systems are even more impressive. The minimum standards required for certification are in practice far below the minimum standards required for appointments. Many states have for some time required a bachelor's degree, others require professional work to the amount of twelve to eighteen hours in addition. Some states and many school systems require the master's degree from recognized institutions of all high school teachers. Still other states have set dates when such requirements will be effective. If a minimum standard of five years' training leading to the master's degree were adopted and realized by the high schools of all the states, the teachers of the United States would still suffer by comparison with those of the secondary schools of some European countries. "The National Survey of the Education of Teachers" discloses the fact that 29% of the secondary teachers of the United States reported training to the amount of five or more years beyond the high school and that .4 of one per cent held the doctorate. By comparison, almost 100% of the secondary teachers of France, Germany, and Sweden have an education equivalent in extent of training to the doctor's degree.

The fact that the majority of candidates for the master's degree in American colleges and universities are teachers or prospective teachers, and the further fact that more than one hundred colleges have recently extended their curricula to include graduate work, would seem to indicate that teachers are accommodating themselves to this trend toward a longer period of training.

(2) *A trend toward specialization in fields of teaching.* In trend number one, emphasis was upon an advancing standard of scholarship as measured by the number of credits amassed or the degree held. Trend number two emphasizes the movement toward the prescription of a *field* as contrasted with a *department* and of a specified minimum degree of mastery as measured by the number of credits earned. This movement appears to be evidence of the breakdown of cherished notions which some are charged with having with respect to the compartmentalization of knowledge.

Until recently a blanket certificate, sometimes valid for life, could be obtained by answering satisfactorily a few questions pertaining to subjects, usually fifteen to twenty-five in number, such as spelling, reading, and history. The holder of such certificate was authorized to teach wherever he might be placed, either in the grades or in the high school. Following the lead of good public school administrators, who at first selected a high school teacher on the basis of his knowledge of, say a social science, and later on the basis of his knowledge of sciences, states are in increasing numbers issuing certificates which authorize the holder to teach in prescribed fields in which he or she has majored or minored in college, and in these fields only. Many teacher-training institutions are accordingly requiring candidates for a degree to select a major subject and, in addition, one or more minors in related subjects. Others prescribe majors in fields.

(3) *A trend toward supervised teaching in the major or minor field of college training.* Once looked upon by school administrators with misgivings, student-teaching is now more and more prescribed by states for certification or by personnel directors for appointments as an essential part of the training for high school service. The ideal set-up for such training is probably found where a campus high school affords opportunity for observation of expert teaching under controlled conditions and where the public schools provide the natural situations for student-teaching under competent supervision and guidance. For best results, teaching and observation should go hand in hand. The advantages of such training over the trial and error method relied upon by the beginning teacher of thirty years ago, is apparent. Teachers trained in this manner, being readily able to carry out directions, are pliable in the hands of competent superintendents, principals, and supervisors. In thirty-one states a minimum number of credit hours in student-teaching is required of all "inexperienced teachers." As many as fifteen hours may be counted toward satisfying degree requirements in some states. Student-teaching done under properly regulated conditions is to the teaching profession what internship is to the profession of medicine. Each is conducive to the development of technique which can be acquired in no better way.

The foregoing movements are susceptible of the application of mathematical-statistical principles with results which characterize them as trends. Other movements which later may be proved to be trends must as yet be regarded as innovations or conditions.

There is the matter of personality training. Ventures and adventures in new phases of teacher-training often, if not usually, come in response to need discovered by school administrators. When need takes the form of demand, training institutions endeavor to meet it. Disclosures made by recent observers as to the high percentage of beginning teachers who lack opportunity for personality development prior to entering training have resulted in effort designed to develop latent possibilities in the personalities of trainees for teaching positions. Sympathy and desire to aid unfortunates by affording them an opportunity to earn a livelihood through appointments to teaching positions are giving way to a businesslike procedure of "culling" from the list of availables those who, in addition to such qualifications as have been referred to under trends, are possessed of superior personalities. But the supply on the basis of this selection is inadequate to meet the demand. Systematic effort through courses of instruction, supplemented by selected experiences is yielding some worthwhile results. If these efforts prove fruitful, as they apparently will, personality development will most certainly be required as an essential, if not an indispensable part of the training of teachers for both primary and secondary levels.

So-called problems of discipline on the part of teachers can usually be resolved into problems of teacher-personality on the part of the administrator. It is my belief that personality development, now perhaps only an innovation, will in due time be regarded as an unmistakable trend in the training of high school teachers.

Good health is closely akin to personality. The former may be essential

to the latter. Proof of good health was required for certification in twenty states in 1935. Not only must teachers possess certificates of good health before securing or continuing to hold licenses where such regulations prevail, but they must, in an ever-increasing number of states, as well as in city systems, give evidence of ability to safeguard the health of those whom they would teach. Accordingly, courses of instruction in health and physical education are being prescribed by state and other institutional agencies. In these courses, prospective teachers are afforded instruction designed to enable them to guide children and the youth along the road to a more abundant enjoyment of mental and physical health.

It is a well-known fact that the college student body is subjected to an emotional and physical strain due to the presence of an environment distinctly different from that of any other social group. Courses in health in teacher-training institutions serve the double purpose of promoting the well-being of prospective teachers and of laying the foundation for health guidance of students of the public schools. Again, it would seem likely that better health of teacher-trainees and the training for health instruction, as yet an innovation or experimentation, will one day be regarded as a trend.

Time limitation forbids the listing of other movements that appear to be well on the way to the rank of essentials in the training of high school teachers.

In spite of the obvious connotation of the word "training" as intended by the one who worded the subject for this contribution to the program, the writer cannot forego saying that its use in this paper has in every instance occasioned doubt in his mind as to what precise meaning that use would convey to those who might be kind enough to listen to the reading. To those who prefer to think of training as that prescribed activity on the part of the trainer which results in the acquisition of certain skills by the trainee due to repeated performance, the writer would say by way of general summary that the most noteworthy trend of the past quarter of a century has been one from an emphasis upon the *training* of teachers to an emphasis upon the *education* of teachers.

A Guidance Program for the Small High School*

By M. R. HINSON

Associate Professor of Education, Florida State College for Women

Your chairman has asked me to address you on the subject of a guidance program for the small high school. This subject implies something rather concrete. The establishment and maintenance of a systematic, workable program of guidance is a difficult task in a large high school with its larger facilities, better trained personnel, deans of boys and girls, and office assistants; it is a much more difficult task in a small high school where most of these facilities are lacking. I am not unmindful of the compliment paid me in being asked to present a guidance program for the small high school. The program I shall have the temerity to present may not meet with your unanimous approval. I do not hope that it will. I do hope that my discussion of the topic will stimulate interest in fruitful guidance as an important function of even the small high school and as a function that is within the realm of the possible—yes, even the probable.

It is not my intention to imply that guidance in the small high school is non-existent. Practically all of the small high schools do some guidance of pupils whether it is so classified or not. On the whole, however, in these schools it is rather perfunctory, unsystematic, too limited in scope, and does not reach all students.

At this point it will not be amiss to give some consideration to the question of definition. "What do we mean by *guidance* anyway?" So much has been written on the subject during the past decade that it would appear that the possibilities of the subject have been exhausted. Almost every book written on any phase of secondary education has a chapter on guidance, or the subject appears in topical form in many places in the book. As one reads the literature on the subject he encounters almost as many points of view as authors, or perhaps even more.

One writer seems to think of guidance as almost entirely the problem of aiding pupils to make wise choices among the many available means of earning a livelihood—*vocational guidance*. Another stresses the necessity for everyone to have profitable and pleasant means of occupying his leisure time—*avocational guidance*. Another is more concerned with the problem of advising and directing pupils in their choice of subjects and curricula and as to the point at which their abilities and interests indicate that their formal education should terminate—*educational guidance*. Still others are concerned about the development of character traits, general patterns of conduct, and integration of personality—*personal guidance*. This point of view is expressed

* An address delivered before the Commission on Secondary Schools, Richmond, Virginia, December 2, 1936.

rather clearly by Cox and Long in their book, "Principles of Secondary Education": "Pupil guidance consists of helping pupils to set up for themselves objectives which are dynamic, reasonable, and worthwhile, and in helping them attain these objectives." From this point of view, the term guidance encompasses and constitutes the whole problem of school education. This philosophy of guidance and education seems to be on the ascendency with writers and thinkers on the subject of education and guidance. It implies that guidance is not a separate task tacked onto the educational structure but is part and parcel of the whole scheme. It involves every administrator, teacher, and adviser of the school system. Every subject and activity, both curricular and extra-curricular, contribute toward and should be a part of the guidance program, if we are to accept this notion of guidance. Such a concept of education and guidance is in direct conflict with current conventional teaching practices, vested interests in subject-matter teaching, and with the whole academic tradition which has such a firm foothold in secondary schools and colleges. Since these vested interests and traditions are apt to be the controlling factors in our secondary schools for some time to come, it would hardly behoove me to set up a program of guidance for the small high school that would involve revolution in the whole curriculum set-up of American secondary schools, no matter how ardently we feel that such a revolution is needed. Your speaker, for one, does agree that vast changes are needed, but he thinks the process should come by evolution rather than revolution.

Guidance as I conceive it, must include something of all that has been included in the points of view presented. It has its vocational, avocational, educational, and personality aspects. None of these can be entirely divorced from the other, though there are some differences, of course, in time, place, and manner of emphasis. We do not yet have definite techniques for all types of guidance. There are available in vocational and educational guidance better techniques of securing the necessary information about pupils and of evaluating our guidance efforts. This is especially true of educational guidance. Naturally any program for the small high school should begin where there are the best available means for doing a reasonably good job.

Ben D. Wood, of Columbia University, says, † "One of the two fundamental prerequisites for all educational and vocational guidance is exact information about the individuals that make up our student bodies. The other is vocational information and job specifications." Both of these things are possible even in the small high school if the budget is made to include an item for tests and proper records and a place is made in the program of studies and the schedule for courses in vocational information. To quote Dr. Wood again‡: "It is my firm belief that at least twenty-five per cent of the

† Allen, F. J.—*Practice in Vocational Guidance*, p. 196.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 197.

entire energy now devoted to 'teaching' children should be turned into *learning* them and into making such records of the information thus gained as to make possible continuous constructive educational guidance of individual students. Vocational guidance can have no sounder basis than this as a starting point; I doubt if vocational guidance can have any other basis than this redirection of a part of the teaching energy of the schools into true and fruitful channels of effort." There is no doubt in my mind as to the soundness of Dr. Wood's position, whether we agree that twenty-five per cent is the optimum per cent of teacher energy that should be put on guidance. Certainly we must *know* those we are attempting to guide.

Max Maconn wrote an article which appeared in the October, 1933, issue of *The Educational Record*, with the pertinent title, "Educational Guidance Is Now Possible," that should be read by everyone interested in the problem of guidance in secondary schools. He points out that the two absolute essentials for guidance of pupils are: (1) A cumulative record card, corresponding to the medical history and hospital chart; and (2) standardized objective achievement and psychological aptitude tests, which he likens to the diagnostic instruments of the physician—such as the thermometer and the stethoscope. He urges that schools make use of the cumulative record forms devised by the American Council on Education and published by the Council (or some modification of those forms), and the tests and testing service of Coöperative Test Service. This Service is sponsored by the American Council on Education and directed by Dr. Ben D. Wood of Columbia University. It is a non-profit organization subsidized by the General Education Board to the amount of \$500,000. Its purpose is to construct ten or more comparable forms of examinations in the fundamental subject matters of the junior college and senior high school levels, and to make them available to schools, one form each year, at the lowest possible cost. These cumulative record forms, the tests of the Educational Test Service, and the many other reliable and comparable tests that are being prepared from time to time make it possible without any great expense for the small high school to make at least a beginning of educational and vocational guidance if principals of these schools have the training, energy, and vision to make use of them. No amount of testing records are of any value, however, unless use is made of the information thus collected regarding the individual pupils in any given school. A hospital chart would be worthless if not used by the physician attending the patient, nor would temperatures and pulse rates be of value to the physician unless recorded by the nurse and consulted by the physician in prescribing for the patient.

In the small high school the principal will have to be the chief counsellor of any guidance program, but he must also have the assistance and coöperation of the home room teachers. Of course, there will be home room organizations in any small high school where successful guidance is carried on. The

principal will have to make his teachers guidance conscious and they in turn will be supplementary eyes and ears in helping him *learn* the pupils. There will be information with reference to personality traits, study habits, and interests that the principal will not have the opportunity to observe, although he can know much more of these things in the small than in the large high school.

With this preliminary discussion I wish to present in brief form what seems to me to be a reasonable and workable program of guidance for the small high school.

SMALL HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

1. *A Testing Program.* This program should begin with the first year of junior high school, if possible, or at least with the first year of senior high school, and should include at least one intelligence test each year, a minimum of two standard achievement tests per year in each fundamental field of study, and an annual physical examination.

2. *A Cumulative Record Form,* either that recommended by the American Council on Education or some adaptation thereof. This form must be kept up to date and the information contained thereon used systematically by the principal, home room teachers, and anyone else that may serve as counsellor to a given student.

3. *A Definite and Systematic Plan for Giving Vocational and Educational Information to Pupils,* probably the best plan being a required course in vocational and educational information. This course could be helped by bringing into the school, for talks and conferences with the class, sympathetic and understanding members of the various professions, trades, and occupations.

4. *A General Shop.* Such a shop can be fitted up at a nominal expense to give some experience in wood working, auto mechanics and stationary gas engines, metal work, concrete mixing, electricity, and home mechanics. The biggest difficulty is securing an instructor with versatility and vision enough to do the job.

5. *A Limited Number of Trial Courses.* These can be placed in the last two years of the junior high school. In fact, I think with proper guidance and the use of sound judgment on the part of teachers and principal, most courses may be placed in that category. There seems to be no sound reason, for example, for requiring two units of a foreign language of the student who after a year's or semester's trial shows little interest or aptitude for such work. Tradition and college entrance requirements to the contrary notwithstanding, I should give him a unit or half unit credit, as the case may be, and guide him into some other line of endeavor.

6. *A Library Corner of Materials on Vocational and Educational Information.* Materials for such a corner can be assembled at small cost from the Office of Education, Bureau of Child Welfare, Department of Labor, Department of Commerce, and Federal Board for Vocational Education. Most publishers will furnish sample texts on vocational and educational guidance if an adoption for such a course is to be made. Colleges will furnish catalogues and bulletins giving educational opportunities offered. Industries often furnish free descriptive bulletins of value.

7. *An Extra-Curricular Program,* of value in social and civic guidance.

8. *A Home Room Organization,* if properly handled and directed, a valuable adjunct to the guidance program.

9. And last, but I think of paramount importance, some *Cooperative Plan of Testing and Guidance* involving larger units than the individual school. The county

and state school authorities and the institutions of higher learning in the state must interest themselves in the problem of guidance if any appreciable per cent of small high schools are to do an effective job of guidance. The principal and teacher turnover in the small high school are one of the chief stumbling blocks to effective guidance and education in the small high school. Teachers and principals cannot know their pupils or carry on any satisfactory program of guidance or education where the tenure is as short as it is in many of our small high schools. If a guidance program receives constant stimulation from the outside and has the support and co-operation, of the county, the state, and the higher institutions, it is much more apt to have continuity, vigor, and system.

A number of states, if I am informed correctly, have some plan of coöperative testing and guidance. My source, Max McConn,* lists Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Minnesota, Ohio, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Washington, and Wisconsin as having such programs, with Delaware, Mississippi, and Oregon contemplating them. Since the source is three years old, this list is probably far from complete. Florida, for example, has been evolving such a program for three years.

Since I am best acquainted with the Florida program, having served two years as Chairman of the *Advisory Committee on Testing and Guidance*, a brief discussion of this program will not be amiss.

Florida, for a number of years, carried on a testing program in the elementary schools, but not until very recently has any attempt been made toward any comprehensive program of testing in the high schools of the state. The various colleges in the state for a number of years have been giving tests to freshmen, but there was no coöperation between the colleges as to the nature, scope, or use of these tests. Each institution developed its own testing program in its own way, and there was no common agreement as to what tests would be given or the use to be made of the testing results. There had been from time to time an expression on the part of high school principals favoring a state-wide testing and guidance program, but there was no machinery for the administration of such a program or funds to defray the expense of the same.

In the fall of 1934, the colleges of the state organized themselves into what is known as the Florida College Association. At the first meeting of this Association in Gainesville, November 23-24, 1934, the Association decided to sponsor a coöperative testing and guidance program of Florida high school pupils. An advisory committee was formed to be composed of one person nominated from each college or university in the association which cared to participate in the program, one person nominated from the department of superintendents of the Florida Education Association, one high school teacher, and one person nominated by the State Superintendent from members of the State Department of Public Instruction, this nominee to serve as chairman. This advisory committee was charged with working

* *Op. cit.*

out objectives and procedures, and planning and carrying out (with the coöperation of the colleges, principals and teachers, county superintendents of public instruction, and the State Department of Public Instruction) a guidance and testing program in the high schools of the state—subject always to the approval of the Florida Association of Colleges, which created the committee.

It was the idea of the Association that each of the colleges and other groups represented on the advisory committee would have a guidance committee within the institution or organization itself and that the state advisory committee should be made up of one representative from each of these institutional or organization committees. In this way the testing and guidance program would in the last analysis be a coöperative undertaking with all interested groups represented.

The advisory committee held its first meeting in Jacksonville during the Florida Education Association Convention, January 2-4, 1935. At this meeting, the committee agreed upon objectives and methods of procedure and set up some expected outcomes or results of such a program. These objectives, etc., were approved by the Departments of Superintendents and of High School Principals of the Florida Education Association:

Objectives of Program of Testing and Guidance

1. To furnish educational guidance to all high school pupils by:
 - a. Helping better prepare boys and girls for life and college (We agree with Dr. Judd that the best preparation for life is also the best preparation for college.);
 - b. Discovering and guiding pupils who would profit by college experience;
 - c. Making the transition from high school to life and college easier;
 - d. Discovering and training capacities into other than college experiences;
 - e. Discovering and indicating the chances of success to those who will probably not succeed in college and helping them find interests in other activities.
2. To improve the educational facilities of the State by:
 - a. Improving our teacher training through observation of teaching in the public schools, thus understanding better the situations for which teachers are to be prepared;
 - b. Establishing more cooperative relationships between high schools and colleges, thus leading toward a revision and integration of the entire educational program of the State;
 - c. Making the State more conscious of the value of education through a testing and guidance program;
 - d. Discovering and finding aid for those who could profit by college experience but are unable to finance the program.

Suggested Procedures

1. That a committee be appointed consisting of the following: one representative from the State Department of Education to act as chairman, one representative from the State College for Women, one representative from the University of Florida, and two representatives from the private higher institutions having a four-year curriculum;

2. That the principal's section and the county superintendent's section of the Florida Education Association be requested to appoint one member from each group to serve on the committee ;
3. That the chairman appoint a high school teacher to serve on the committee ;
4. That the committees above have power to act in putting into effect a spring testing program in the high schools of the State ;
5. That an adequate uniform record system be developed for the high schools ;
6. That the program above be financed by the State Department of Education, the local community, and the coöperating colleges, funds from foundations to be solicited for the program ;
7. That an adequate accounting system for collecting and disbursing all funds be established ;
8. That each college be asked by the central advisory committee to assume responsibility for certain schools (This has not proved workable.) ;
9. That the chairman of the committee be the State Director of Instruction ;
10. That excellent teaching in the high schools be encouraged by excusing high school graduates from taking freshman courses in college when they show attainment in that course equal to that of the end of the freshman year ;
11. That the establishment of study groups of superintendents, principals, and teachers in various parts of the state be encouraged to consider the objectives of testing and guidance, to consider changes needed in the program and to make recommendations to the central advisory committee, etc.

Some Expected Results

1. Reduction of high school failures through more adequate guidance ;
2. Reduction of vocational failures through more adequate adjustments of pupils ;
3. Reduction of college failures through more adequate adjustments of pupils ;
4. Increase in high school attendance and graduation through more adequate adjustments of pupils and curriculum ;
5. Increase in college attendance and graduation through more adequate adjustments of pupils and curricula ;
6. Better coördination of the work of the public schools from the first grade through college ;
7. More sympathetic and cooperative work between all educational forces of the state ;
8. Contributing toward a better concept of education on the various levels ;
9. Improving the offerings of the high schools and colleges ;
10. Making the transition to college easier ;
11. Making the transition into adult life easier because of better adjustments ;
12. Better teaching, because we know more about the teaching needs of the schools.

At a later meeting of the advisory committee a Spring Testing Program was agreed upon and put into operation in the spring. This program included the following :

1. For All High School Seniors :
 - a. The Mental Ability Test of the American Council on Education (furnished free to the schools by the State Institutions of Higher Education) ;
 - b. Iowa High School Content Examination, Form B.
2. For Eleventh and Tenth Grades :
 - a. Iowa Silent Reading Test ;
 - b. Scones-Harry Achievement Tests, Form B.
3. For Ninth, Eighth, and Seventh Grades :
 - a. New Stanford Achievement Tests.

The reception of this program exceeded the fondest expectations of the advisory committee, as there had been little opportunity to publicize the program. In all, 11,299 tests were given. The mental ability test was given to 3,689 high school seniors in every corner of the State ; the Iowa content test was given to 2,902 seniors ; 1,158 pupils in grades ten and eleven took the Scones-Harry achievement test and 689 pupils from these same grades took the Iowa silent reading test ; 2,861 junior high school pupils took the New Standard achievement test. A summary report on these tests was given to each high school principal whose school participated. The colleges of the state have also made very definite use of these test results in advising applicants for college entrance who took these tests.

This is notably true at the University of Florida where some thirty students were advised, upon a basis of these tests and the grades made in high school, not to go to the expense of coming to the University as there was little chance that they would succeed. On the other hand, the admissions committee has been able to secure assistance for a number of high school graduates who made high scores on the tests and had good marks, but were unable to go to college. The Florida State College for Women is using the test results for guidance after entrance to college but plans to make use of them in a way very similar to that in effect at the University of Florida.

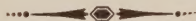
The advisory committee of the Florida College Association is planning this year to develop some content examinations which will be more suitable to the students pursuing the program of studies of the Florida high schools. Raw materials for developing tests will be collected from Florida high school teachers and the tests themselves will be worked out coöperatively by faculty committees of the Florida State College for Women and the University of Florida. The actual cost of the content tests themselves has so far been borne by the individual schools or county boards of public instruction. The mental or college aptitude tests are furnished by the colleges for those students planning to enter college.

It is hoped that this program will eventuate in a wide-spread interest in the problems connected with educational and vocational guidance of pupils

in our Florida schools and that we will develop administrative, testing and advisory techniques that will be worthy of financial support from our state. If we can reach the goal of guiding our high school boys and girls of the future into pursuits for which they are fitted by interest and aptitude we shall have done a job of human conservation, the value of which will be incalculable.

This program of guidance for the small high school is one that I believe is practical and will secure excellent results. No part of it is entirely original although I know of no small high school where the entire program is in effect.

May I repeat in closing that I do not believe we will ever have successful guidance in the small high schools if they are left to initiate and carry out their own programs without stimulation and assistance from the larger administrative units of county and state. It will of necessity have to be done through some such program as the one being attempted in the Florida schools.



THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY FOR AUGUST

It was intended to publish all of the addresses delivered before the Southern Association and the Commissions in Richmond in the May issue of THE QUARTERLY. Since, however, there was such a large number of the noteworthy addresses, and since the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research is to furnish certain materials for the August number, it was deemed wise to accede to the request of the Commission officials and carry over into the August number the following:

"Significant Trends in High School Teaching," by Professor Roscoe E. Parker, of the English Department, University of Tennessee.

"Significant Undertakings in Secondary School Teaching," by Miss Nell Lawler, of the Canton High School, Mississippi.

"Significant Undertakings in College Teaching," by Dean T. C. Staples, of Hendrix College, Arkansas.

